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ART. I.—*Historical and Political Memoirs of the Reign of Lewis XVI. from his Marriage to his Death: founded on a Variety of authentic Documents, furnished to the Author, before the Revolution, by many eminent Statesmen and Ministers; and on the secret Papers discovered, after the 10th of August 1792, in the Closets of the King at Versailles and the Tuileries. By John Lewis Soulavie, the elder, &c. Translated from the French. Accompanied with explanatory Tables, and One Hundred and Thirteen Portraits. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1802.

IF there be disadvantages attendant upon writing a history of our own times, and the author find it difficult to extricate himself from those prejudices and partialities in which the world around him is involved, there are also advantages which posterity can never possess. Many of the fleeting facts of the day, which develop in their truest light the characters of the most prominent personages meant to be described, if not seised at the moment of their appearance, will never be seised at all; and the future historian must be content to patch up an imperfect likeness from the broken and unconnected scraps of materials that may accidentally fall into his hands. If he do not present his contemporaries with a caricature, he will often present them with a portraiture which possesses no resemblance whatever—a vapid and inanimate corpse, devoid of interest, energy, or appropriation. The best historians of Greece and Rome are unquestionably those of their own times. Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, and Livy, are all of them highly valuable compilers; their materials are ample, and for the most part well digested; and they have been industrious in the collection of historical evidence: but they possess not the authority of Xenophon or Cæsar, nor are they perused with an equal degree of impression. The virtue of impartiality is not so difficult of acquirement as it is often conceived to be; and it is, perhaps, one of the prejudices of the present day to contemplate it in such a view. If, in the courts of law, mankind may

be thought competent to become judges of the actions of their countrymen, and capable of divesting themselves of partialities in the exercise of their decisions, it is at least possible that an historian may, in like manner, in the retirement of his library, abstract himself from every personal influence, and weigh the mass of evidence before him in an impartial balance. The historian, indeed, who is inspired with the real dignity of his subject, writes less to his contemporaries than to posterity; and cannot but be sensible that the immortality after which he is so laudably panting, must principally accrue from a sound and solid judgement, carefully chastised from every bias and obliquity, and transmitting the light of truth alone upon the pure mirror of his page.

We have been led into these observations from the appearance of the voluminous publication before us, by an author who has heretofore furnished us with nine interesting volumes of French history, under the title of Memoirs of Marshal Richelieu; and is already engaged in a History of the Revolution, which will extend to the termination of the eighteenth century. We mean not, however, to anticipate the favour of the reader by applying these remarks either to the present or any of the collateral Memoirs of M. Soulavie, in this commencement of our strictures. We have merely offered them with a view of removing general prejudices against contemporary histories, and shall now enable him to determine for himself, by a candid analysis of the work before us, and a brief statement of the documents to which the author has had recourse.

'It may be considered,' (observes he), 'in the first place, as a continuation of my labours on the history of the decline of the French monarchy, published in nine volumes, under the title of Memoirs of Marshal Richelieu, which commence at the latter part of the reign of Lewis XV., and end at the accession of Lewis XVI. to the throne. These Memoirs, and those I am now publishing, are the result of indefatigable researches, ever since the year 1778. The most distinguished personages of ancient France have supplied me with the anecdotes and other curious materials, that have gone through two editions in the first of the works. I have frequented persons respectable for their talents and veracity, who were brought up in the court of Lewis XIV.; such as marshal Richelieu, cardinal Luynes, some ancient magistrates and ministers, confidential secretaries, subaltern agents of government, valets-de-chambres to the king, ancient favourites, and ladies of the court. All of them were still able to give clear and particular accounts of the events and persons mentioned in the memoirs of Richelieu. I have preserved from the flames of the revolution the most curious monuments of our modern history, by publishing, before the epoch of our misfortunes, the complete works of the duke of St. Simon, memoirs of Duclos, Massillon, Maurepas, d'Aiguillon, and others connected with the history of Lewis XV.

'During the reign of the unfortunate Lewis XVI., I did not discontinue my visits amongst people of the first distinction in the monarchy. Above all, I collected the monuments of the arts. My cabinet contains all the historical engravings of that period, and all that I could possibly find relating to anterior transactions.

'The execution of this project has formed a collection of prints, composed of an hundred and sixty-two volumes in folio, on the history of our nation, from the time of Pharamond to that of Bonaparte; a monument truly national, since it is an history of France written by the imagination of our artists, as well as the history of modern Europe, with which France has ever been connected.

'To this assemblage I have added another no less important, that of printed works, on the reign of Lewis XVI., and on the revolution, which are also in my cabinet. It will hardly be believed that they consist of more than thirty thousand different publications, written by the leaders of factions, or by their disciples and adherents. So that in writing the history of the revolution, we are embarrassed in the choice of materials. We are obliged to confine ourselves to select the writings of the most remarkable personages of each party, as they contain the quintessence of the anarchy of the moment we have to delineate, and also the spirit of opposition which moved the rulers whose contests we must describe.' Vol. i. p. xlii.

'The Memoirs of the Reign of Lewis XVI., which I am publishing, have, therefore, been composed from a valuable source, the papers of the king himself; from depositories to which the queen or ministers never had the least access: and I have availed myself of all the information that could be obtained from prints and books; and from the most distinguished and best-informed persons of that reign, whose situations were most favourable for observation, and with whom I have had frequent conversations since 1778. The work will besides have the merit of being exposed to all the censures of my contemporaries, and to the contradiction of the opposite parties I provoke. This contradiction will bring on explanations and detections, important to the history of our times and country.

'The Memoirs of Marshal Richelieu commence with the 18th century, and end at the death of Lewis XV.

'Those of the Reign of Lewis XVI. begin at the time of his marriage, in 1771, and finish at his death.

'My History of the Revolution, now in the press, begins with the first assembly of the notables, and ends with the 18th century. This is the completion of the task I proposed to myself in 1778.' Vol. i. p. lxxi.

The first chapter is merely introductory; and as the Memoirs before us are a direct continuation of those devoted to the ministry of marshal Richelieu, much of it might have been spared without any loss to the integrity of the general design. It gives a sketch of the intrigues between Austria and France to obtain a supremacy of control amidst the different states of Europe,

and the means by which Spain, the perpetual tool of these rival courts, was sometimes the adjunct of the one and sometimes of the other, according to the superior degree of policy which was evinced by the respective ministers for the time being. Henry III. opposed the unbounded ambition of Austria with all his might. The emperor Philip II. had conceived the enormous design of subjugating both England and France, as well as Spain, and of composing for all Europe one grand Christian monarchy. For this purpose, he created what was denominated an armed league, and put himself at the head of it. In the midst of this contention Henry III. was suddenly assassinated by a monk, sent from the bosom of the league; and his successor Henry IV. a few years afterwards, by a villain of the same conspiracy, in conjunction with his own wife the celebrated Mary de' Medici, of Austrian descent,—having previously escaped not less than three times from similar attempts. The Austrian party now appeared to have obtained an unbounded sway at the court of Versailles, more especially as the queen-dowager compelled her son Lewis XIII. to marry an Austrian princess. It was the good fortune of Lewis XIII., however, to be possessed of some of the most profound and able ministers that have ever influenced the politics of Europe. The original plan of Henry IV. was now prosecuted by the renowned Richelieu with the utmost degree of spirit; and the opposition of Mary of Medici was at length silenced by her banishment from the court; in consequence of which she retreated to Austria, and died shortly afterwards of pure chagrin. Mazarin pursued the system of French aggrandisement so successfully advanced by Richelieu; the result of which was, the famous thirty years' war, and the treaty of Westphalia—which gave so much splendor to the reign of Lewis XIV., but which, by wresting from Austria, Alsace and the three bishoprics, and by elevating the French monarch to the high office of protector of the liberties of the Germanic states, threw the control of Europe too largely into the hands of the court of Versailles;—a danger infinitely increased, when, in the course of a few years afterwards, Spain, who had uniformly of late been connected with the house of Austria, was induced, through French intrigues, to dissolve the old family compact, and to receive a king from the line of the Bourbons. Austria continued to decline from this period; and the triple and quadruple alliances, in which England, alarmed at the growing greatness of the French monarchy, appeared so conspicuously, were incapable of aiding her very essentially. The regency and power of the duke of Orléans, who had united himself with the confederates, terminated with the majority of Lewis XV.; the kingdom of Naples was wrested from the emperor in the south; while Frederic of Prussia, perceiving his decline and incapacity of ef-

fectual resistance, attacked him at the same time in the north, and seised possession of Silesia. With the justly celebrated Maria Theresa, however, a new æra arose: she was fortunate in the choice of count Kaunitz for her minister, who artfully obtained for his mistress a new alliance with the court of Versailles, and considerably indemnified her for the losses sustained by her ancestors, by compensations in Poland. All the powers of Europe were alarmed at the alliance of the two first monarchies on the continent, and a variety of memorials and coalitions were the consequence. Lewis was at this moment assassinated by Damien; but the blow was not successful. It was truly indeed a regicide age; for in less than three years afterwards the king of Portugal was stabbed through the heart; and very shortly after this event the dauphin and his consort were both poisoned. In France and Portugal these assassinations were for the most part attributed to the Jesuits; and the duke of Choiseul, who bore them an inveterate hatred, left no step unattempted to crush the existence of their society: Voltaire was his chief instrument; and by his own exertions as minister, and the writings of that philosophical wit, he at length succeeded, and their society was abolished in 1762.

The Jesuits, however, could not be the only assassins of the day; for the dauphin was their grand protector, and he himself did not fall till after the suppression of their order. It was generally suspected, and probably with great truth, that the dauphin and his consort both became victims to the diabolical craft of the duke of Choiseul himself, who was detested by the prince, and who was publicly accused of that crime by the general voice of the nation, as well as by his opponents the duke d'Aiguillon and marshal Richelieu. He retained his post notwithstanding, and had art enough to prevail on the old king, who was now become equally decrepit in body and mind, a superstitious religionist and a debauchee, to propose to his grandson the young dauphin, afterwards Lewis XVI., another connexion with Austria, by a marriage with the late unfortunate Marie Antoinette. This bold and decided, but cruel and unprincipled man, who recoiled at nothing that gave a chance of accomplishing his purpose, was at length, however, completely disgraced and banished to Chanteloup, where he employed himself in defaming every branch of the royal family to whom he was indebted for his dignities and support. His ruin was accomplished by a variety of concurring circumstances. The party of the duke d'Aiguillon, his irreconcilable antagonist, left no means unattempted to injure him both in the opinion of the court and the people: the seven years' war, into which he had rashly plunged the nation against England, had been attended with almost uninterrupted disgrace, and the most complete predominance of the English flag upon the ocean; and

the sacrifice of the unfortunate Lally, by whose death he had meant to have wiped away all the imputations cast upon his administration, aggravated the general odium against him, and eventually completed his downfall.

As general Lally was the father of a nobleman who exhibited a conspicuous figure in the commencement of the revolution, and as the story of his decapitation is related with no small degree of interest by our author, we shall select it as a favourable specimen of his narrative talents.

'General Lally was a man of quality, who had devoted himself to follow the fortunes of the house of Stuart, expelled from the throne of England. He had chosen France for his new country, and had distinguished himself in the war of 1740 against the English, particularly by breaking into the famous column of the enemy at the battle of Fontenoy. Being sent to India, he was there less fortunate. The French squadron, though superior to the English, abandoned Pondicherry, the most valuable of our possessions. Choiseul's party was humbled by the misfortunes of the war; and it had three motives that required a victim: the first to make it believed abroad that the Irish had betrayed us, and save the honour of our flag; the next to enable the ministry to keep up their haughty tone at home, after the manner of Richelieu; and lastly, to ruin the near relation of general Lally, M. de Saint-Priest, intendant of Languedoc; who, designed by a powerful party for the place of the duke of Choiseul, had the courage not to disown Lally for his relation, to defend him, and to proclaim his innocence.

'The English did not accomplish their views in the death of admiral Byng; and in the case of Lally, the equally senseless official accusation of having betrayed the interests of Lewis XV. met with no better success. The duke of Choiseul, who deceived the king on this occasion, insensibly declined in the good opinion of his master, when this prince, being afterwards better informed, learned that he had been misled by his minister. It was to little purpose the general's condemnation was sanctioned by the forms of justice; the king was sensible of the fault he had committed, in leaving to the authority of the parliament, which he considered only as the tribunal for private disputes among his subjects, a cause of supreme jurisdiction, with which Choiseul had invested it. Thus, by the most strange perversion of ideas, the parliament was charged with the office of sitting in judgment on an affair of state, on a military transaction, of which generals alone were competent to take cognisance; and of a cause of the supreme jurisdiction, in which the parliament could not interfere without overturning all political ideas of a monarchy. M. de Choiseul changed his dear parliament into a committee, subverting on the other hand the moral maxims of the first tribunal of the realm—of a tribunal which, under former ministers, had been the natural and necessary enemy of arbitrary punishments, the enemy of government commissions, and the last asylum of the people of France, when persecuted by the enmity of ministers or courtiers.

'All the parts of this strange proceeding were to be traced back to the invisible hand of the duke of Choiseul, who was the director of the whole: it was he who caused a commission to be given to the parliament to inquire into this affair. The metropolis was not inclined to a punishment of this kind, particularly for crimes committed more than two thousand leagues off. It was necessary to rouse the public, and direct against the general all the means of ministers whose power is in danger, or enraged, or in a state of actual intoxication. Lally was accused of having betrayed the interests o the king, and the India company at Pondicherry.

'The five magistrates, who were commissioned to make their report on the cause, declared at first among themselves, after a long examination, that general Lally was innocent. Yet, on the day when their report was finally to be given, two of them condemned him to death, and two others declared him not guilty. It was still in the power of the fifth to have saved him: but wavering between the two opinions, like a man who gropes his way blindfold, now inclining this way, now that, and now turning about, he at last said, to get rid of his doubts—"Let him die, that at any rate we may make an end of our business."

'In the parliament Lally had the warmest partisans of the duke of Choiseul against him, and they went so far as to propose, that he should be condemned to the wheel. "If you really intend he should die," observed one of the most cunning, "sentence him to some other kind of death, for this the king will never be brought to suffer." Lally was condemned to be beheaded, for having betrayed the interests of the king and the India company. "The nation requires an example," said the judges; "and not finding facts to lay before the public, it is upon the whole taken together we have condemned him." They had eluded the military testimonies of the Crillons and Montmorencys, who were the general's companions in India, and who listened to the depositions of Lally's groom and cook, who were offended with a master that had treated them with austerity.

'The animosity of the judges against the general was so great, that one of them went to the king, to request him not to grant Lally a pardon. Among his numerous relations in France, mademoiselle Dillon alone had the courage to write to the king, requesting him to hear MM. de Montmorency and de Crillon, occular witnesses of the courage and zeal of the unfortunate Lally. The king, governed and watched by the duke of Choiseul, was inflexible. Madame de la Heuse went and threw herself at his feet, supplicating his pardon: but the king was not to be prevailed upon, the duke of Choiseul never ceasing to beset him at Choisy.

'On the day of execution this minister shut up every avenue, to prevent the repentance of a king whom he mistrusted. In the mean time the hour of his death was hastened at Paris: the general was thrust into the first cart; and that he might not acquaint the people with the nature of his case, the executioner put a gag into his mouth by order of Pasquier. Consternation and affright spread through the capital: examples of such cruelty were to be found only in the annals of Rome brutalised under Nero.

'When general Lally arrived at the place of execution, he began to offer up his prayers. Before he had finished, the hangman made a stroke at him, which was ineffectual; on which three others laid hold of him and sawed off his head.

'The son of general Lally, then at college, was informed, at the very instant only of the tragical scene, who was the author of his days: he flies from his tutors to pay his first and last homage to his parent, presses through the crowd, and finds nothing but his blood. At this news, the rage of the duke of Choiseul and of the parliament revived. The boy was sent abroad, and the proofs of his birth were destroyed.' Vol. i. p. 46.

Choiseul was succeeded by his rival, who had formerly also been banished from court, and confined to the army, because his uncle the marshal Richelieu wanted his mistress for the king. The leading feature in these antagonist administrations consists in this circumstance, that it was the perpetual object of the duke of Choiseul to unite the great states, and enable them to enlarge their boundaries at the expense of the weak; while the duke d'Aiguillon assisted the weaker states, in conformity with the celebrated maxim of the dauphin, father of Lewis XVI., so politically sage in itself, and upon which the present chief consul has so invariably acted—*assist and protect the weak—humble the strong*. It was the perpetual object of the former, moreover, to advance the interests of Austria, and preserve the peace of Europe by a strict alliance between the courts of Versailles and Vienna; while the latter evinced an implacable jealousy against the Austrian family, and sought for the safety and aggrandisement of his country by humiliating it in every possible manner. As to the rest, there does not appear to have been any great degree of difference between them; and in point of moral virtue no twins could be more on a par. We have read much of the profligacy of the court of St. James's under the Stuarts; but perhaps nothing in history can equal the bare-faced debauchery, corruption of manners, and indulgence in every species of low and lascivious gratification, which prevailed at the court of Versailles during the administration of these men; and the temptations which were offered by them to seduce and dæmonise the mind of the dauphin, afterwards Lewis XVI., and his unfortunate consort Marie Antoinette. As the chief seeds of the revolution were sown at this period, we must not close our account without being more explicit.

While Choiseul held the reins of government, he was, as we have already observed, strongly opposed by d'Aiguillon; and when d'Aiguillon at length displaced him, Choiseul still retained a party sufficiently large to keep the court and the nation in a state of perpetual chaos. The king was, excepting by acts of occasional interference, a mere cipher in political concerns; his ministers, whoever happened to be in office, found it their interest to gratify his libidinous inclinations; and he who could procure for

him the most beautiful and lascivious woman was sure to possess the greatest portion of the royal favour. The new mistress was the real prime-minister; she was systematically initiated by her employers into the plans they intended to execute; and it was expressly stipulated between them, that she should leave no effort unattempted, in her moments of most captivating dalliance, to obtain these ends. The different courts of Europe beheld the distracted and voluptuous state of public affairs at Versailles; and Austria, Russia, Prussia, and occasionally England, all had their separate emissaries and factions, supported by an enormous expense, and infinitely augmenting the profligacy and corruption of the day. Every one was to be hired by every one: the king purchased his pleasures by stipulations with his mistresses; his mistresses their rank in life (several of them, as madame Dubarry for example, from work-houses and common brothels) by compacts with the ministers; the ministers their respective factions and reciprocal triumphs by the bribery of foreign powers. The church was as corrupt and as much brutalised as the court. The Jesuits were at perpetual war with the Jansenists, the Jansenists with the Molinists. The king, whose superstition and timidity of mind, joined to a consciousness of the depravity of his conduct, made him as much a religionist as he was a debauchee, was almost the only one in higher life who made any professions of public devotion whatever. On this point our author is entitled to peculiar credit, as well from his personal knowledge of the facts he enumerates, as from his known attachment to the old *régime* and the religion of his country. We shall therefore introduce his own words.

'Towards the end of the reign of Lewis XV., opinions favourable to religion were nearly confined to the king, and a weak party at court. The attendance on public worship was left to tradesmen and the lower classes of the people. Those persons of fashion who did not turn religion into ridicule confined themselves to three ways of showing their adherence to it, and that only from a remainder of respect which diminished daily. On Sundays, they went from home, and paid their visits, to avoid an attendance on the celebration of mass: hence they were thought to have been present at that ceremony. The time restricted for the Easter communion they every year divided into two portions; the former of which they passed at Paris, and the latter in the country. By this means they bewildered those who were on the watch, from the curiosity of discovering whether the Easter communion was received by them or not. Finally, in cases of death-bed sickness, the husband or wife, who was to be the survivor, kept the confessor at a distance. There were objections to the vicar's being let into the secrets of the dying party, who, most commonly, had been faithless to the marriage vows, in an age during which a strict adherence to moral duties was considered in no other light than as a matter of jest. The children, the relations, the husband, or the wife, concealed the danger of the sick party from the priest, or sent for a confessor when it was too late.'

'Except in the above predicaments, I hardly ever saw persons in high life, before the revolution, give proofs of any attachment to the cause of religion; unless, perhaps, a few old men, or, more commonly, aged female devotees, living retired from court, and in the habits of frequenting the church of St. Sulpice, that being the parish-church resorted to by persons of distinction.' Vol. i. p. 195.

Amidst this general destruction of all the sober and dignified principles of civil society, this equal corruption and dissipation of the church and state, it cannot seem very surprising that wits and superficial philosophers should attack the establishments which were thus egregiously perverted, and in many instances express doubts of the truth or propriety of the principles upon which they were founded. Frederic of Prussia, who had a deep game to play, and in his plans of aggrandisement found it difficult to keep Russia and Austria in a state of quiescence by his own personal exertions, saw plainly that the sect of wits and philosophists might be of essential service to him, by so far augmenting the involved politics of France as to render the ministers of that country incapable of adding to his difficulties. Some of them he therefore complimented with the most adulatory professions of friendship; others he took into actual pay; and over the whole he obtained a vast ascendency, by pretending to enter into all their infidelities and absurdities. The philosophers were therefore duped in their turn: they were in reality the mere tools of Frederic, and afterwards of Catharine of Russia, while they thought themselves the only independent men in the world. The higher dignitaries of the church began at length, however, to tremble for their offices: it was necessary, on their own account, to stay the torrent of infidel publications; and a remonstrance was presented to the king, 'through the medium,' says our author, 'of a prelate *who did* NOT *believe even in the existence of a God*—M. Loménie, archbishop of Toulouse,' in favour of the Gospel, and the intolerant edicts of 1542, 1547, and 1551! 'Your majesty is too well apprised,' observe these pious petitioners, 'of the advantages which religion confers on nations, and, above all, of the powerful support it yields to the authority of kings; not to consider impiety, which endeavours to annihilate that support, as the greatest scourge that can afflict your reign.—We are on the eve of the fatal moment when the press will overturn the church and the state.'

After the very able observations of M. Mounier on the influence of the philosophers in accomplishing the revolution, of which an account was given in our last number, we cannot avoid thinking that our author attributes too much to the operation of this fanciful and absurd junto. He unites, however, with the author of the Millennium, in opposition to the abbé Barruel and the bishop of Rochester, in confining their technical phrases—'religion of infamy,' 'crush the infamous system' (*écrasez*

l'infame)—to the religion and the religious system of the Gallican church alone, or, at most, to the Roman-catholic faith.

'During a space of fifteen years, the king of Prussia, Catharine II, Voltaire, d'Alembert, Diderot, and Condorcet, invariably distinguished *the Roman-catholic religion* by the appellation of "the religion of infamy." Voltaire and d'Alembert ended all their letters by the following abbreviations, ECR. L'INF., which for a long time alarmed and puzzled the police-officers by whom their letters were opened.' Vol. i. P. 193.

'This religion of infamy was that of *the Gallican church*, of which the dignitaries composed the first order of a state, still formidable to all the potentates of Europe—an order which formed one of the three foundations of a government, which the philosophy of Frederic, of Catharine II. of Voltaire, and Diderot, was endeavouring to overturn.' Vol. i. P. 194.

Thus limited, there certainly was no impropriety in the term; for never could there be a more *infamous religion* under the sun.

On May 10, 1774, the besotted, lascivious, and superstitious Lewis XV. closed his iniquitous career; his body being, for several days prior to his decease, one uniform mass of putrid sores, exhaling the most intolerable stench, and his mind agonised with all the recollection of his abominable misdeeds. The solemnity of the scene, however, was not sufficient to diminish the animosity of the different factions by which the dying monarch was surrounded. D'Aiguillon, Richelieu, Fronsac, all the Molinists, and the friends of madame Dubarry, were strenuous against his confession and participation of the sacraments: the adherents of Choiseul, and of Beaumont archbishop of Paris, pressed him however so strenuously to the point, and exhibited so superior a degree of circumvention to their opponents, that they at length prevailed; and the hoary lecher, withdrawing his putrid hands from the bosom of madame Dubarry, took his leave of her for ever with the following address.

"My dear, I have the small-pox, and my situation is very critical, on account of my age, and *other distempers:* I must not forget that I am the most Christian king, and the oldest son of the church: I am in my sixty-fourth year; in a very short time, perhaps, we must be separated for ever. I wish to guard against a scene similar to that which took place at Metz: tell the duke of Aiguillon what I say to you, that, should my disorder increase, he may concur with you in such measures as may enable us to part without scandal and publicity." Vol. i. P. 144.

'Lewis XV. at his death, bequeathed to the French monarchy a number of legacies, which, after the lapse of eighteen years, were doomed to overturn and destroy it to its very foundation.

'When the daughter of Maria Theresa became queen of France,

she sowed the seeds of dissension in the Bourbon family. Fatal animosities were soon to take place between her and the children of Lewis XV., his two sisters-in-law, and the grandees who were employed about her person.

'The count d'Artois already led so licentious a life as to draw on himself, before his misfortunes, the contempt of every Frenchman who had still any regard for decency and public decorum.

'With regard to the administration of affairs, the king had left it in the hands of the most profligate men. The duke of Vrillière was one of its oldest contemptible members. Bertin still remained in power, whose office it had been to superintend the haram, called the *parc aux cerfs*, and the filthy debaucheries of the king. A national and irrecoverable bankruptcy had rendered the abbé Terray an object of general execration; whilst the arbitrary measures of the duke of Aiguillon and of Maupeou had excited all those against the royal authority who were weary of the absolute and military power of the French kings; and even all the advocates for despotic sway; because the king had exceeded all bounds, by degrading the kingdom in the eyes of his subjects, and still more in those of foreign powers. The nation was unanimous in its wish for a change in administration.

'The taxes were raised to such a pitch, that several of the provinces were unable to pay their assistants. Many peasants of the Limosin, of the Sevennes, the Pyrénées, and of Dauphiny—provinces naturally barren, and presenting many obstacles to cultivation—relinquished the lands of their forefathers, finding their crops inadequate to the amount of ruinous taxation.

'With regard to the expenditure, such was the profusion of the court, that, without a radical and extensive reform of this branch of finance—a reform of which the court was incapable—the kingdom was in danger of a general bankruptcy, and of a revolution.

The magistracy, distinguished by the appellation of *Maupeou's parliament*, had no stability. It was assailed on all sides by the Choiseul faction, ever bold and artful in its modes of attack and defence. The Jansenists lamented their dissolved and exiled parliaments; nor were their tears or their intrigues without effect; whilst the Jesuits and their partisans deplored, in their turn, their last dissolution. In this manner, all was complaint and lamentation in two opposite parties.

'The nation had before this been disturbed by two powerful rival factions, which had made war against each other. Now they conjointly made war on the state—a dangerous circumstance, the forerunner of the dissolution of social order, which takes place when governments, in a state of distress, or of blindness, are in want of one of the parties, to take its share of hatred and resistance, of attachment and defence. The unjust and glaring persecution sustained by the magistracy rendered it respectable, and attracted the pity of many.

'Every thing bore the appearance of relaxed authority in all the other departments of state. The navy, which had been nearly annihilated in the last war with the English, was not rebuilt. Great-Britain had disgraced France by a treaty worthy of the times of Charles VI.

'The army was no better attended to than the navy: mere courtiers were at the head of it, in whose conduct impartial judges could discover nothing but proofs of general ignorance, of want of skill in military operations, and shameful defeats in the war of seven years. Among five hundred officers of superior rank, all old enough to command, France could not reckon twelve capable of supporting the long-established reputation of our troops, and worthy of being named as military characters.' Vol. i. p. 182.

Such were the unpropitious circumstances under which Lewis XVI. commenced his reign. The government was already in a revolutionary state; and, by an unexampled series of evils, many of which it was not in his power to have prevented, but many of which also owed their entire origin to his own inactivity and want of resolution, the ultimate blow was at length accomplished, and he fell a victim to the severity of his fate. For many years after his marriage with the archduchess Marie Antoinette, and prior to his elevation to the throne, himself however, and his royal consort, were equally and most deservedly the idols of all France. Modest and exemplary amidst the debauchery of the court, they led a life of retirement, visiting the cottages of the poor, and exercising with emulation acts of beneficence and humanity. Even for some time after their accession to the throne they preserved a very large proportion of popular attachment, and exhibited the same amiability of character. The queen, however, upon the death of M. de Maurepas, who had never suffered her to interfere with affairs of state, was determined to become a politician; and this determination pushed her to a greater extent still; when, by the birth of the elder dauphin, she began to feel an additional right of interference, and seemed to be actuated by all the ambition of her ancestor Maria Theresa. She plunged into the muddy gulf; the purity of her mind was contaminated;—like the statesmen around her, she was compelled to dissemble, to cajole, to humiliate herself, in order to increase her own party, which was generally that in opposition to the minister of the king's appointment: she became open to flattery in her own turn; her character declined gradually in the estimation of the multitude who had before been accustomed to caress her; and, in proportion as she grew despised, she endeavoured to support herself by additional haughtiness and contempt for all popular opinion.

M. Soulavie divides the reign of Lewis XVI. into ten epochs. The first embraces the administration of count Maurepas, from his recall upon the death of Lewis XV. The second commences with the re-establishment of the parliaments, by the advice of this favourite—more perhaps with a view of demonstrating his opposition to the system of the late ministers, La Vrillière and Maupeou, than from any real expectation of benefit to be derived from their exertions, although he scarcely perceived the

assault he was thus giving to the very vitals of the monarchy. The third epoch embraces the administrations of Turgot and Malesherbes, who had imbibed all the wildness of modern philosophy, and acted upon what was absurdly called the system of perfectibility. The financial administration of M. Necker forms the fourth epoch, during which France was distracted with antagonist calculations, and became an actual bankrupt in the midst of the most splendid theories for her freedom from debt. The fifth epoch embraces the events of the American war, which embodied the speculations of the philosophers, and gave them the power and activity of which they could otherwise never have been possessed. The sixth epoch commences with the birth of the first dauphin, and the influence of the queen in affairs of state, upon which we have commented already. The administration of Calonne and the *notables* comprises the seventh epoch. The second administration of M. Necker forms the eighth, who, by changing at this time the minority into the majority, overthrew the monarchy most effectually. The ninth epoch embraces the constitutional monarchy, as it was called; and the tenth, the creation of the republic and the death of the king.

Such is the outline of the work before us. The materials of the author are ample, and for the most part, we believe, unquestionably authentic. On his talents as an historian we shall offer some additional remarks, in conjunction with some additional extracts from the present Memoirs, in a future number.

ART. II.—*The Poetical Works of John Milton. With the principal Notes of various Commentators. To which are added Illustrations, with some Account of the Life of Milton. By the Rev. Henry John Todd, M. A.* 6 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 2*l.* 14*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

AN elaborate edition of Milton has long been among the *desiderata* of English literature. By the separate publication of Comus, the present editor had proved himself equal to the task, and he was in consequence 'invited and encouraged' to the undertaking. The volumes contain a copious selection from former commentators.

'The chief purpose of the new notes, is, in humble imitation of Mr. Warton, "to explain the allusions of Milton; to illustrate or to vindicate his beauties; to point out his imitations, both of others and of himself; to elucidate his obsolete diction; and, by the adduction and juxta-position of parallels universally gleaned both from his poetry and prose, to ascertain his favourite words, and to show the peculiarities of his phraseology." Mr. Warton justly adds, that, "among the English poets, those readers who trust to preceding

commentators will be led to believe that Milton imitated Spenser and Shakspeare only. But his style, expression, and more extensive combinations of diction, together with many of his thoughts, are also to be traced in other English poets, who were either contemporaries or predecessors, and of whom many are now not commonly known. Nor have his imitations from Spenser and Shakspeare been hitherto sufficiently noted." Of this it has been a part of the present editor's task, as it was of Mr. Warton, to produce proofs. The coincidences of "Fancy's sweetest children," Spenser, Shakspeare, and Milton, are accordingly here enlarged. The obligations of our author to Dante, hitherto little noticed, as well as to some other Italian poets, are pointed out. The poet's imitations of himself are also considerably augmented. Nor have the romances and fabulous narratives, on which the poetry of Milton is often founded, been neglected. The editor, while he has not been sparing of classical illustration, has constantly kept in mind the necessity of attention to the literature of Milton's age. Without this attention, as Mr. Warton remarks, "the force of many strikingly poetical passages has been weakened or unperceived, because their origin was unknown, unexplored, or misunderstood. Coëval books, which might clear such references, were therefore to be consulted; and a new line of commentary was to be pursued. Comparatively, the classical annotator has here but little to do. Dr. Newton, an excellent scholar, was unacquainted with the treasures of the Gothic library. From his more solid and rational studies, he never deviated into this idle track of reading." But as Milton, at least in his early poems, may be reckoned an old English poet; and as, in his later poetry, allusions to the sources of fiction, with which he had been pleased in his youth, often appear; he generally requires that illustration, however trifling it may seem to fastidious readers, without which no English poet can well be illustrated.' Vol. i. *Preface.*

'He has endeavoured to render the text as perspicuous as possible; not only by several illustrations of antiquated words,—which, as Mr. Warton has observed, in a succession of editions had been gradually and silently, yet perhaps not always properly, refined,- but also by comparing the copies published under the immediate inspection of Milton, as well as most subsequent editions; more particularly those of Tickell, Fenton, Bentley, and the later editors; as the notes will show.' Vol. i. *Preface.*

'To the punctuation also, of which Milton has been pronounced by Mr. Warton to have been habitually careless, great attention has been paid. The editor conceived it his duty likewise to examine the manuscript, containing many of Milton's early poems, preserved in the library of Trinity college, Cambridge; and he found, on examination, several particularities which had been omitted by those who had before collated the manuscript, and which were too curious not to be noticed in the present edition. To the end of the several poems, of which there are copies in the manuscript, these various readings are annexed. The reason is assigned.

'The editor offers, with the utmost deference, some account of the life of Milton; of which the materials have been drawn from authentic sources. In this biographical attempt, some new anecdotes, relating to the history of Milton's friends, of his works, and of his times, will also be found. These may perhaps plead as an apology for the rashness of the editor, in affecting to sketch the poet whom the masterly hands of a Johnson and an Hayley have depicted—a rashness to which he has been impelled by the persuasion of others, that, to a new edition of his works, it is a custom to prefix the life of the author.

'Such are the materials here accumulated, in order to explain the labours of Milton—of Milton, the proud boast of his own country, and the admiration of the world—of Milton, whose imitations of others are so generally adorned with new modes of sentiment or phraseology, that they lose the nature of borrowings, and display the skill and originality of a perfect master; and from whom succeeding poets, at various periods, have "stolen authentic fire."

'From the liberal and candid reader the editor hopes to meet with more than pardon—having spared neither pains nor cost in the prosecution of his design, and having strenuously exerted his humble abilities to please and to inform.' Vol. i. *Preface.*

In writing the life of Milton, Mr. Todd has adopted the only prudent plan that remained for him after Johnson and Hayley. He has made it a work of research; and in so doing he has brought forward some curious facts that had hitherto escaped notice. It appears that Milton's Tractates of Divorce, though in his own time *seldom pored on*, gave rise to a small sect who were called Divorcers, and even Miltonists. Some light Mr. Todd has thrown upon the intrigues of the papists in this country during the struggle between the parliament and the king. He also gives us two little poems surmised to be the productions of this unrivaled bard, upon the following grounds.

'As Milton is believed to have continued his friendship for Henry Lawes, the musician, throughout the rebellion, I am led to think that he now often experienced a pleasing relaxation from business and study in listening to the "soft pipe and smooth-dittied song" of his early acquaintance. Lawes, who was acquainted with the principal poets of his time, and was honoured with many of their productions for the use of his lyre, had now published two *Books of Ayres;* in the latter of which, dated 1655, is a ballad, which "the Table, with the names of those who were the authors of the verses," ascribes to "Mr. I. M. p. 37." The ballad consists of the first and last sextains of a little poem which had appeared not long before in an edition of Shakspeare's poems; at the end of which is "an Addition of some excellent Poems, to those precedent of renowned Shakspeare, *by other Gentlemen*;" but these verses are without any signature, while Milton's epitaph on Shakspeare in the same volume is subscribed I. M. It may not perhaps seem improbable, that Milton might formerly have acknowledged to Lawes this production of his earlier days, which yet he had not thought worthy of ad-

mission into his collection of poems. The little poem shows at least a remarkable familiarity with Sylvester's *Du Bartas;* a book in which Milton was assuredly conversant. I submit the verses, with deference, to the determination of the reader.

" *Lavinia walking in a frosty morning.*

" I' the non-age of a winter's day,
Lavinia, glorious as May,
To give the morn an earlier birth,
Paced a mile of crusted earth,
When each place, by which she came,
From her veines conceiv'd a flame.
The amorous plants began to strive,
Which should first be sensitive;
Every *hoary-headed twigge*
Dropp'd his snowy perriwigge,
And each bough his icy beard:
On either side his walkes were heard
Whispers of decrepit wood,
Calling to their rootes for blood:
The gentle soyle did mildely greete
The welcome kisses of her feete;
And, to retaine such a treasure,
Like wax dissolving, took her measure.
Lavinia stood amaz'd to see
Things of yearly certaintie
Thus to rebell against their season;
And, though a stranger to the reason,
Back retiring quench'd their heate,
And Winter tooke his former seate." Vol. i. p. lxxxix.

The other poem more resembles the language of our great poet.

' Before I quit the subject of the first appearance of Paradise Lost, I must notice a communication made to the public not long since by a gentleman possessing the original edition of the following lines; apparently written by a female on two leaves prefixed to the title-page of his copy, and subscribed at the bottom with this singular remark: " *Dictated by J. M.*" The communicator observes, that the daughter of Milton officiated as his amanuensis; and that, from the remark already mentioned, there is some reason to attribute the lines to the author of Paradise Lost. Different female hands, it may be added, appear in the manuscript of Milton, preserved in Trinity college, Cambridge. However, the bondage of rhyme will probably incline some readers to doubt the authenticity of these lines; while several striking sentiments and expressions, and the frequent flow of the verses into each other, may perhaps occasion some also to think them genuine, and that the great poet might have chosen, as an amusement, to employ once more the " jingling sound of like endings." The subject also had been a favourite theme of Milton.

'*On Day-Break.*

" Welcome, bright chorister, to our hemisphere;
Thy glad approaches tell us Day is near.
See! how his early dawn creeps o'er yon hill,
And with his grey-ey'd light begins to fill
The silent air, driving far from our sight
The starry regiment of frighted Night;
Whose pale-fac'd regent, Cynthia, paler grows,
To see herself pursued by conquering foes;
Yet daring stays behind, to guard the rear
Of her black armies, whither without fear
They may retreat, till her alternate course
Bring her about again with rallied force.
Hark! how the lion's terrour loud proclaims
The gladsome tidings of day's gentle beams,
And, long-kept silence breaking, rudely wakes
The feather'd train, which soon their concert makes,
And with unmeasur'd notes, unnumber'd lays,
Do joyfully salute the lightsome rays.
But hearken yonder, where the louder voice
Of some keen hunter's horn hath once or twice
Recheated out its blast, which seems to drill
Th' opposing air, and with its echo fill.
Thither let's hie; and see the toilsome hound,
Willing, pursue his labour, till he has found
Some hope of what he follows, then with fresht
And pleasing clamour tells it to the rest.

" O Thou, who sometimes by most sacred voice
Father of Light wert styl'd! let my free choice
(Though all my works be evil, seldom right,)
Shun loving darkness rather than the light.
Let thy essential brightness, with quick glance,
Dart through the foggy mist of ignorance
Into the darken'd intellect, and thence
Dispel whatever clouds o'erspread the sense;
Till, with illumin'd eyes, the mind
All the dark corners in itself can find,
And fill them all with radiant light, which may
Convert my gloomy night to sun-shine day.
Though dark, O God! if guarded by thy might,
I see with intellectual eyes; the night
To me a noon-tide blaze, illumin'd by
The glorious splendour of thy majesty." Vol. i. P. cxix.

The Nuncupative Will of Milton is next in order, as edited and annotated by Warton. This is followed by a list of 'such editions of Milton's poetical works as have hitherto been met with by the editor of these volumes,' of the translations and alterations, and of detached pieces of criticism relating to Milton, his editors, &c. The Prolegomena follow, succeeded by the first Commendatory Verses on Milton; then in order, Addi-

son's Criticism on the Paradise Lost, and Dr. Johnson's Remarks on Milton's Versification. This last in particular is ably commented upon by the editor. An Inquiry into the Origin of Paradise Lost concludes the first volume. An Analysis of Andreïni's Tragedy, by Mr. Hayley, is given.

'But, if the *Adamo* be examined with the utmost nicety, Milton will be found no servile copyist: he will be found, as in numberless instances of his extensive, his curious, and careful reading, to have improved the slightest hints into the finest descriptions. Milton indeed, with the skill and grace of an Apelles or a Phidias, has often animated the rude sketch and the shapeless block. I mean not to detract from the Italian drama; but let it here be remarked once for all in Milton's own words, that "*borrowing*, if it be *not bettered* by the borrower, among good authors is accounted *plagiarie*." Let the bitterest enemies of Milton prove, if they can, whether the author of this ingenuous remark may be exhibited in such a light; rather let them acknowledge that, in fully comparing him with those authors who have written on similar subjects, he must ever be considered as

——————— "above the rest
In shape and gesture proudly eminent." Vol. i. p. 251.

The Italian tragedy mentioned by Dr. Pearce has not been discovered. The Locustæ of Phineas Fletcher is next noticed. From this poem an extract is given of considerable merit. A passage is inserted from the Letters of Mr. Robert Gray, wherein it is said that an Irish baron at Dusseldorf was, about ten years since, employed in translating into English verse a Latin poem, entitled The Christiad, written by Robert Clarke, a Carthusian monk, of the convent of Nieuport near Ostend. From this the translator asserted that Milton had borrowed largely; and Mr. Gray says that it contains many ideas and descriptions strikingly similar to parts of the Paradise Lost. But the copy from which the baron was translating was printed in 1678, eleven years after the first publication of Milton's poem. Mr. Hayley's analysis of another Italian drama follows, the Adam and Eve of Troilo Lancetta. Three other Italian poems are briefly noticed—the Angeleïda of Erasmo di Valvasone, the Strage de gli Innocenti of Marino, and Le Sette Giornate del Mondo Creato of Tasso. There is another Italian poem upon the Seven Days of Creation, and a Spanish one also entitled La Divina Semana, both which have escaped Mr. Todd's notice. Sylvester is last mentioned. The editor concludes his inquiry thus:—

'I have thus brought together opinions, delivered at different periods, respecting the *Origin of Paradise Lost*; and have humbly endeavoured to trace, in part, the reading of the great poet, subservient to his plan. More successful discoveries will probably arise

from the pursuits of those, who are devoted to patient and liberal investigation. "Videlicet hoc illud est præcipuè studiorum genus, quod vigiliis augescat; ut cui subinde ceu fluminibus ex decursu, sic accedit ex lectione minutatim quo fiat uberius." To such persons may be recommended the masterly observations of him, who was once so far imposed upon as to believe Lauder an honest man, and Milton a plagiary; but who expressed, when "Douglas and Truth appeared," the strongest indignation against the envious impostor: for they are observations resulting from a wish not to depreciate, but zealously to praise the Paradise Lost. "Among the *inquiries*, to which this ardor of criticism has naturally given occasion, none is more obscure in itself, or more worthy of rational curiosity, than a retrospect of the progress of this mighty genius *in the construction of his work*; a view of the fabric gradually rising, perhaps, from small beginnings, till its foundation rests in the centre, and its turrets sparkle in the skies; to trace back the structure through all its varieties to the simplicity of its first plan; to find what was first projected, whence the scheme was taken, how it was improved, by what assistance it was executed, and from what stores the materials were collected; whether its founder dug them from the quarries of Nature, or demolished other buildings to embellish his own." I may venture to add, that in such inquiries patience will be invigorated rather than dispirited; and every new discovery will teach us more and more to admire the genius, the erudition, and the memory of the inimitable Milton.' Vol. i. p. 302.

Paradise Lost fills the second and third volumes. The notes are very numerous. At an early period of modern literature the practice of laboriously commenting was transferred from the divines and schoolmen to the vernacular poets. A few lines of text were hardly seen in the middle or in the margin of a crowded page. 'Each dog must have his day!' The fame of the commentator for a time sometimes equaled or excelled that of the author. The patient and persevering dullness of these men is scarcely credible; and their inanity and impertinence is often little less marvelous. In a poem of Juan de Mena, king Juan the second is mentioned. 'King Juan the second' (says the commentator)—'so called to distinguish him from king Juan the first.' These writers were men who by no other means could gratify their craving after celebrity. Vanity had urged them to the toil of acquiring learning, which they possessed no genius to direct. They would fix upon some favorite poet, and then stick like barnacles to the hulk of the vessel, that they might 'pursue the triumph and partake the gale.' Their admiration for the author was only shown in an ostentatious display of their own knowledge, as pagans and papists hang the clumsy figures of their own limbs around the idol whom they worship, or as schoolboys and clowns deface the monument that they admire by cutting upon it their names.

This folly was never naturalised in England. The business of our commentators has been to illustrate and explain their author. This has been ably executed by the various editors of Shakspeare, and of his contemporary dramatists, who, though eclipsed by him, are indeed stars of the first magnitude. Of posterior writers only Pope had been thus distinguished, till the publication of the present work. There is little in Milton that requires elucidation; he has lived too near our own days to be difficult or obsolete. But it is a task neither uninteresting nor unimportant to follow our great poet through his various studies—to trace him from Shakspeare and Spencer to Sylvester—to see how from the orange-grove and the weed by the way-side the bee collects the honey. Mr. Todd has judiciously selected the *variorum* notes; his own are numerous and valuable, and discover a more extensive acquaintance with English and Italian poetry than any of the former editors, except Warton, possessed. The Appendix to Paradise Lost contains plans of similar subjects intended for tragedies by Milton, from his own manuscript in Trinity college Cambridge.

(To be continued.)

ART. III.—*General View of the Agriculture of the County of Lincoln; drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By the Secretary to the Board.* 8*vo.* 9*s. sewed.* Nicol.

ART. IV.—*A Review of the corrected Agricultural Survey of Lincolnshire, by Arthur Young, Esq. published in* 1799, *by Authority of the Board of Agriculture; together with an Address to the Board, a Letter to its Secretary, and Remarks on the recent Publication of John Lord Somerville, and on the Subject of Inclosures. By Thomas Stone.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Cawthorn.

IN pursuing our account of the Agricultural Survey of this county, we are led into the unpleasing paths of controversy—a controversy, however, which we shall not follow at any great length, as it would not generally be interesting, and would detain us too long from many works of value which claim our attention. In the agricultural surveys of different counties, Lincolnshire was allotted by the Board to Mr. Stone—a gentleman whose labours as a surveyor and steward we have often had occasion to examine, and who has commonly merited our warm commendations. The value of his survey we cannot estimate: it certainly was disapproved of; and Mr. Young

was sent into the county with directions to examine it anew. The latter remained in Lincolnshire three months, and speaks with great warmth of his favorable and polite reception. It is certain, indeed, that he had Mr. Stone's former report, with additions by many of those gentlemen among whom it was circulated; or we should have wondered how it was possible to have collected a body of facts, in general so extensive and interesting, in this short period. On the other hand, Mr. Stone has some reason to complain that *his* survey was rejected without the imputation of any error; and we can scarcely suppose a man generally intelligent, and who seems to have lived in the county he was employed to survey, guilty of any material error. This conduct of the Board has drawn from the latter gentleman a critique on Mr. Young's work, in which, as was natural, he has magnified little errors, and caught at those trifling inaccuracies which must have arisen from the secretary's short stay, and his residence at only one period of the year. Indeed, in his eagerness to blame, Mr. Stone has in two or three instances adduced inconsistencies, which, in the same, or the following sentence, are corrected. Thus Mr. Young says, that after the drainage of the Witham the lowlands were more aguish than before; but he adds, when the drainage was *completed*, they were less so. This may be easily explained; for, while the land was draining, a tract of country, formerly under water, was in part uncovered: when the drainage was completed, the whole was dry. This however is objected to, as an inconsistency. A great portion of Mr. Stone's work also is employed in stating differences of opinion between him and the secretary: which is sometimes done with propriety, but more often with petulance and sneering. The practice of agriculture very certainly requires being bred to the active exercise of it; but a judgement of soils, a knowledge of manures, &c. may be attained very accurately by a person whose early acquisitions were in a different line. Thus we think Mr. Stone may be an excellent steward, though he may be no farmer; and indeed we can trace some agricultural errors in his present performance; and if Mr. Young's farm be not managed, as is hinted in the work before us, with peculiar skill, this will not detract from the merit we have uniformly ascribed to him. We certainly differ from Mr. Young in many points of agriculture, and in none more than a subject much enlarged on in Mr. Stone's review, viz. paring and burning, where we conceive most useful vegetable matter is sacrificed to the acquisition of a few ashes; yet we think highly of his talents, and warmly commend his application of them. These two works, together, will however render each perhaps more valuable; and on the whole they have greatly improved our knowledge of this county. We shall

first notice the agricultural survey, and then add a few remarks on some points controverted by Mr. Stone.

The county of Lincoln lies on the German ocean, and is bounded on the east by that sea. On its north is the river Humber, which divides it from Yorkshire; and on the south Northampton and Cambridge shires. The higher midland counties are on its west; from these are derived its more important rivers, the Trent, the Witham, and perhaps the Welland. Some smaller ones flow from the higher wolds on the east, and the heaths in the neighbourhood of the metropolis. The wolds were perhaps, at one time, the projecting cliffs which confined the sea; for the low ground at present forms a very imperfect barrier, and was once seemingly covered by it. This low ground is pretty extensive in the southern part of the county, but more contracted in breadth, particularly at the south-eastern range of the wolds in the neighbourhood of Wainfleet, and on the north, where these hills almost project into the *embouchure* of the Humber.

We need not observe that Lincolnshire is in general a very low and wet county. Mr. Young, who speaks of some parts of it with much warmth of praise, saw it at an advantageous period. But though its flat grounds require careful and extensive drainage, these same lands, in summer, want water. The springs are deep, and not always easily met with. In three months, viz. from June 1 to August 27, the quantity of rain was $11\frac{78}{100}$ inches, which marks this county to be a wet one. The greatest and least heat may be between $81\frac{1}{2}$ and 25, but this depends on two observations only. Inclosing has proceeded rapidly in this county; and Mr. Young seems to approve of commutation for tithes in bills of this kind. The farms are usually moderate, and the rents low; but the smallness of farms as well as inclosing are not, in our author's opinion, either so favorable to agriculture or to population, as is commonly supposed. We know, in general, that small farmers are neither such good husbandmen as the occupiers of large estates, nor so happy as *their* own servants. They are subject to disorders from incessant toil, and seldom long-lived. These circumstances our political calculators and superficial declaimers on the subject have never taken into their account; but they deserve very ample consideration.

We have some curious remarks on buildings, and a long history of the process of making the stucco used in major Cartwright's house. Leasing is not common, though more so, according to Mr. Stone, than the secretary represents. On the subject of implements, we have some curious information, of which we cannot engage in the detail. The minute statement of the management of arable land in Lincolnshire is very extensive,

but broken too much into separate facts, many of which might have been advantageously brought together. They are seemingly thus separated to enable the author to add his authorities. We cannot, on this account, offer any abstract of it, but shall select his conclusions respecting drilling.

'Such are the facts I met with in this inquiry; they confirm the general result through the kingdom. Drilling is a practice which will be found to answer to a certain extent; and with a certain degree of skill and attention. But when a minute attention flags, and the scale is much extended, then it is found that the conclusions drawn from one or two fields were not applicable to a whole farm; that the necessary operations militate with other objects; and what was profit becomes loss. Were all the men known who have tried this husbandry, and laid it aside, the advocates remaining would not figure by their number.' P. 141.

Of the crops less common, a singular one is that of woad (*isatis tinctoria*); and we have a description of major Cartwright's new buildings for its reception. They appear to be very complete: but we think, with Mr. Stone, that the expense of carriage will exceed any advantages derived from the permanent situation, and the vicinity of the parishes, calculated so that those who shall become chargeable in the manufactory shall not be a burthen on the parish where the chief part of the estate lies. Hemp is another of these unusual crops, and well adapted to a deep strong soil, as it soon impoverishes a less fertile one. The rich grazing lands are however of the chief importance in this county; and a large portion of useful information is collected on this subject, though, as usual, too much in detail. In general, the quantity of stock fed *per* acre is almost incredible, and the profits equally surprising. 'The facts here registered contain such proofs of fertility as perhaps no other district in the kingdom can equal—certainly none of similar extent.'

The plantations afford little that is interesting; but what our author observes respecting the wastes should claim attention. With his remarks, we would wish, however, to combine Mr. Stone's observations on the construction of drains, and the errors of some of the more important ones. In general, the fens and commons are by no means highly advantageous: the sheep rot, or in a wet winter are drowned; and the chief advantages are derived from the geese. The following short history of draining is peculiarly curious, and can be easily selected.

'Forty years ago it was all warren for thirty miles from Spilsby to beyond Caistor; and by means of turnips and seeds, there are now at least twenty sheep kept to one there before.

'Every circumstance concerning so very large a tract as the undrained fens deserves attention. For the following particulars I am

indebted to sir Joseph Banks, who knows more of them, perhaps, than any other person in the county. The east and west fens were drained by adventurers in the time of Charles I., some account of whose undertakings may be seen in Dugdale's History of Embanking and Draining; they were about that time actually inclosed and cultivated. It is probable that the undertakers and the king, to whom a share was allotted, had taken to themselves a larger portion of the fen than the county thought just and reasonable; for in the time of the great rebellion, a large mob, under pretence of playing at foot-ball, levelled the whole of the inclosures, burnt the corn and houses, destroyed the cattle, and killed many of those who occupied the land. They proceeded to destroy the works of drainage, so that the country was again inundated as it formerly had been. After the restoration, the adventurers repaired their works, resumed their lots of property, and began again to cultivate them; but the country, who always considered themselves oppressed, by trespass upon the grounds, compelled the adventurers to defend their rights by a course of law; in which it was determined, that the original agreement was not valid, and consequently the property of the whole level was vested in its original proprietors. From this time the drainage was carried on under the court of sewers, principally by means of the adventurers' drains; but the river Witham being neglected, and nearly silted up, they became so much oppressed, that application was made to parliament in 1762, when an act passed, by which the present works have been made, which are probably sufficient to carry off the whole of the downfall waters; but till a catch-water drain is made, to keep separate those that fall upon the hills from those which fall upon the level, and a proper outfall provided, to carry the hill waters separately to sea, the expense of which will probably be equal, if not exceed that of the Witham drainage, the land can never be considered as safe winter land; neither can it be thought advisable to divide and inclose it. These fens, east consists of 12,424 acres, one rood, one perch. The undertakers' drains left only 2000 acres under water; but I am credibly informed that the outfall of Maudfoster, as that *goat* now lies, is capable of draining dry the deepest pits in that fen.' P. 225.

It gives us great pleasure to hear, that no obstacles will now be in the way of draining a vast extent of fen. We trust that, in the present auspicious period, the work may be commenced. Our author's observations on the authority of sir Joseph Banks, whose sincerity we believe no one will question, deserve the attention of the Lincolnshire improvers. We can only refer them to pages 233 and 234 of this volume.

The study of drainage is of peculiar importance to the farmers of this district; and some useful hints are offered on this subject. Sir Joseph Banks seems to have succeeded well on Mr. Elkington's plan. A source of moisture, not very usual, arises from the porous ground, which absorbs the water from the sea; and we should suspect that it is with difficulty

removed. Perhaps, as hinted in some of the remarks, its entire removal may not be advantageous, as it refreshes and cools the ground in the dry summers, independently of the utility of its salts as a manure. Paring and burning is a practice warmly defended, and the subsidence of the ground accounted for from its increased density. We cannot decide on this subject, as we have no experience in the agriculture of Lincolnshire. Within the district to which our own practice has been confined, it is evidently injurious; and from reasoning we suspect it would be so in others.

On the subject of manures we find nothing particularly curious. Bones are found to be very advantageous, except perhaps for turnips. Burning straw on the ground is said to be particularly so, from its heat, as is supposed, rather than its ashes, which are in very small quantities. It may be doubted whether the hydrogen produced may not be again carried down and united with the earth, though this is not very probable. About five tons of straw *per* acre are sufficient; and the price of the straw is about 5*s*. *per* ton.

To a county which, like that of Lincoln, is gained in a great measure from the sea, the ocean must be an indefatigable and powerful antagonist. Embanking is therefore an operation of no little importance: but scarcely any thing is said of the construction and management of the banks. Warping is a singular operation, confined we believe to Lincolnshire. The streams tributary to the Trent are turbid, though the diffused matter is deposited before it reaches the sea. The operation consists in letting this water pass over the lands, so as to deposit the contents on the soil. It appears to be chiefly sand, but certainly mixed with clay. The quantity deposited is so considerable as to elevate the ground; and the new earth is abundantly fertile. Warping is about to be practised on a great scale. Watering the land has been only of late introduced, but promises to be, as it has been usually found, advantageous when properly conducted.

Of live stock, cattle and sheep are of the chief importance, and many facts are collected on this subject. It is however impossible for us to engage in the detail; and the whole practice, at least so far as regards sheep, is in our opinion erroneous. In reality, we see some parts of the management that we disapprove, and some that we can perhaps not implicitly credit without farther explanation. The following remarks on the production of wool in this county we shall leave to the judgement of our readers.

'Upon the very remarkable facts, that the whole county carries a sheep and a half *per* acre, at 9lb. *per* fleece, I may observe, that if this is true, or near the truth, it is probably stocked far beyond

any other in the kingdom. Instead of 1,848,000 acres, let us call it 1,600,000, allowing 248,000 acres for lands that do not probably come into the account at all; at a sheep and a half, there are then 2,400,000 sheep in the county; producing 21,610,000 lb. of wool, which at only 9*d.* *per* pound, or 810,000*l.* amounts to 10*s.* an acre over the whole. Such an account, or any thing near it, is not to be produced in any other district probably in the world. This fact shows the immense consequence to Lincolnshire of a fair price of wool: the manufacturers, in their evidence given before parliament, on the wool bill, stated what they called the rivalry of French fabrics of long wool, by means of smuggling it from England. Supposing the fact (which was directly the reverse), it has now certainly ceased, for the French manufactures have ceased; add to this, that our woollen fabrics, as appears by their registers, and by the custom-house exports, are far more prosperous, yet the price of Lincoln wool was 1*s.* and it is now only 9*d.*; contrary to every thing that ought in such cases to take place. At a fair price, the wool of this county would sell for 1,080,000*l.* a year. The difference is a very material loss indeed!' P. 367.

Rabbits are not so advantageous as sheep. Geese are a profitable stock, as they require little labour: they are plucked four times a year, and each time the feathers are worth 4d. The goose itself is worth from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* Fishing is not apparently much attended to.

The chapter on rural œconomy, viz. on labour and provisions, contains nothing very interesting for our present purpose. Wages are in general high.

The subject of political œconomy is considered under the sections of roads, canals, manufactures, poor, and population. The canals and manufactures are neither so numerous nor so important as we might have expected. Of the manufactures, spinning is the most considerable branch; and from this county Norwich is seemingly supplied. A hank of woollen yarn, which by custom is estimated 156 yards, has by the ingenuity of miss Ives been spun to 168,000, or the length of above 95 miles.

The poor in Lincolnshire are numerous, notwithstanding their cottage system, which merits commendation. The women are represented as indolent; and the high wages encourage dissipation. The idea is, that population has declined. From the accounts before us, we greatly doubt of this assertion. The army has certainly lessened the proportional number of men.

The miscellaneous chapter offers little that is interesting. We are glad to find, from Mr. Stone, that the rats which infested Deeping fen are drowned. The appendix is not of much importance. The chief article which merits notice is major Cartwright's method of covering corn-stacks with painted or oiled canvas.

In this account of Mr. Young's survey, we have anticipated many parts of Mr. Stone's Review. He, in general, accuses the secretary of partial statements, and unequal attention in his inquiries. Much, it is alleged, has been picked up at ordinaries, and in common conversation. We know not that it is an error to glean from conversation; nor can any inquirer always answer for his authorities. It is sufficient if, as Mr. Young does, he carefully produce them.

On the subject of drainage, Mr. Stone's observations are very judicious and intelligent. We do not transcribe them, because they are chiefly of local importance, and require a minuter knowledge of the situation than we can convey. On the subjects of paring and burning also we fully agree with Mr. Stone. We have examined the practice theoretically and experimentally; and, in each view, are convinced that it is in general injurious. In heavy stiff lands, where the soil is deep and much incorporated with coarse grass and furze, we have found it of service. In these, a diminution of the soil, and the destruction of the vegetable extractive matter, are compensated by the greater friability of the earth. Subsequent manuring, however, with lime and dung, we have always found to be necessary, if the ground be to be kept in heart for any number of years. We shall select Mr. Stone's account of the soils where his practice is alone admissible.

'Paring and burning ought only to be allowed under the following limitations and restrictions:

'Upon fen land lately drained, where it may be impossible to subdue a variety of coarse productions, and to level it any other way.

'Upon fen land with a clay bottom, and a superstratum which requires dissipating and reducing in thickness, in order to allow the plough to sink low enough to touch and bring up a portion of clay to mix with the fen mould.

'Upon strong clayey soils, where no other means can be resorted to, after draining, to render them more open and less tenacious.

'[I have seen the arrangement of soil of this kind totally changed by the process, and thus land qualified to produce turnips in succession, which was impossible to be done upon the circumjacent land of the same original quality. But even in this instance I should prefer the plan recommended by lord Dundonald, "to calcine the clay in clamps or kilns, and to spread it afterwards on the ground, either by itself or mixed with lime."]

'Upon a loamy soil at a great distance from a home situation, and where neither marle, lime, clay, soil, manure, nor any means of improvement can be found. The occupiers to be limited and restrained, after this process, from taking two successive crops of corn or grain, and to return to the same land all the manure which its cropping has produced.

'But, upon a very light soil, this process, after the most cautious restrictions, will generally be found detrimental husbandry, both for '*father and son.*' Upon soils of this kind, however, marle or clay, after the Norfolk system, will be found in the highest degree preferable.' P. 228.

Whether Mr. Young have concealed or misrepresented any part of the evidence obtained in this tour, as hinted in the volume before us, is a circumstance that we cannot decide on.

The observations on embanking and on warping are important, as apparently the dictates of genuine and unprejudiced observation. The very favorable view given of the subject in the survey does not appear to be confirmed by experience. On the topic of cattle, Mr. Stone claims the merit of the principal points of reformation adopted by Mr. Young, from his first report. We shall not enlarge on the merits of the case, as we have professed a dislike to the whole Lincolnshire and Leicestershire system. On the other subjects we have enlarged sufficiently. Mr. Stone constantly finds something to object to, or to sneer at.

The appendix contains—

'Observations on the principal subjects which are treated of in the late publication of lord Somerville, entitled "The System followed during the last two Years by the Board of Agriculture further illustrated; with Dissertations on the Produce and Growth of Sheep and Wool, as well Spanish as English. Also Observations upon, and a new Plan for, the Poor and Poor Laws. To which are added Remarks on the Modes of Culture and Implements of Husbandry used in Portugal; and an Inquiry into the Causes of the late Scarcity, and Means proposed to remedy it in future.' P. 353.

In this appendix we perceive a little of the resentment suggested by the treatment of Mr. Stone's report; but there are many observations of real importance and value. Our article has been already so extensive, that we cannot transcribe them; and indeed their minute and miscellaneous nature would have prevented it, had our limits been less confined.

ART. V.—*The New Annual Register, or general Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year* 1800. *To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste, in Great-Britain, during the Reign of King Charles II. Part IV.* 8*vo.* 14*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

UNDER the late administration, every work in which the incense of adulation was not lavished on its principal became an object of censure; and to venture a prediction on the ill success of the war in which he had engaged us, or to animadvert on

the unparalleled extravagance with which it was conducted, exposed the writer, as it is justly observed in the preface to this volume, to unbounded 'calumny and venal abuse.' On the alteration of public sentiment in these respects, the editors of this work express a 'joyous triumph;' and having been pertinaciously consistent in the avowal of opinions, of late too generally reprobated, but now once more acquiring an ascendency, they may be justly allowed to exult in the triumph which has been obtained. To the constitution of their country the editors declare themselves firmly attached, almost to idolatry; yet a mere declaration of patriotism is at present but of little weight; for the same assertion is advanced by every party; and those who have been most strenuous for the suspension of the *habeas corpus*, and the confinement of their countrymen in solitary cells upon bare suspicion of disaffection,—for the transmission of money out of the kingdom unsanctioned by the consent of parliament,—for every measure, merely because it has been proposed by the ministry,—are as loud in their asseverations of attachment to the constitution as if their whole conduct had been guided by the bill of rights, as founded at the revolution. Yet facts may be pleaded in favor of the assertion of our editors; and their prior volumes may be recurred to, as affording an unquestionable evidence. Public prejudice having in some measure subsided, it may be determined with ease what publications have evinced the strongest attachment to the constitution; those which in supporting a disgraceful war have weakened some of its main pillars, or those which have been decided against the policy of the war from the beginning, and could not be brought to hug the new-fangled chains on the independency of the press and the liberty of the subject.

The work is arranged in the usual manner. The history of letters in the reign of Charles the Second occupies the first part; and excellent use is made of the copious materials from which a knowledge of that period may be obtained. Our versification began now to receive a degree of polish to which it had hitherto been unaccustomed; but poetry was disfigured by the perpetual attempts at that species of wit which was adapted only to the licentious manners and depraved taste of the court. In delineating or exciting the affections, the poets of this age were seldom successful:—

'—as they were wholly occupied in something unexpected and surprising, they had no regard to that uniformity of sentiment which enables us to conceive and excite the pains and pleasures of other minds. They never inquired what they themselves should have said or done on other occasions; their only aim was to say what had never been said before. They wrote rather as beholders than partakers of human nature, as beings looking upon good and evil impassive, and at leisure; as Epicurean deities, making remarks on the actions of

men, and the vicissitudes of life, without interest, and without emotion. Their courtship was void of fondness, and their lamentation of sorrow. Nor was the sublime more within their reach than the pathetic, for they did not attempt that comprehension and expanse of thought which at once fills the whole mind, and of which the first effect is sudden astonishment, and the second rational admiration.' P. xii.

Cowley, Butler, Roscommon, Rochester, Buckingham, Dorset, Waller, Otway, Phillips, Wycherley, pass in review before us; and those who have not the leisure to peruse their lives, in conjunction with the masterly criticisms of Johnson on their works, may, from this abridgement, form a good idea of their professional character.

The British and foreign history is compiled with great judgement, though perhaps more attention than necessary is paid to many of the speeches of individuals in both houses of parliament. The book opens with the address from the throne on the 24th of September 1799, which must now excite a smile or a groan, according to the politics of the reader. 'The deliverance of Italy,' and the expectation of success from the 'efforts for the deliverance of the United Provinces;' the *éloge* on 'our good and faithful ally the emperor of Russia,' and particularly on his wisdom and 'magnanimity,' afford tolerable specimens of the sagacity and foresight of the minister who could enforce such topics from so high an authority. The house, as usual, re-echoed the royal speech, and immediately afterwards proceeded, on the suggestion of Mr. Dundas, to new model, or, it might be said, to overthrow the system of the militia. Among the lords the same debates produced the same conclusions. The finances afforded opportunity for a few trifling discussions, in which, as usual, whatever was proposed by the minister was assented to with scarcely any resistance; and of course, notwithstanding the enormous sums of money advanced, the suggestion by Mr. Martin that the terrace at Somerset-house should be accommodated to the use of the public was rejected by Mr. Pitt with his accustomed *hauteur*. The reason assigned is too ridiculous to be mentioned—that 'the vicinity of the public offices made such a precaution absolutely necessary;' but we may be allowed to observe that so beautiful a promenade would not at Paris, even under the old monarchy, have been locked up from public employment, and rendered, we might almost say, of no utility to any individual whatsoever. Mr. Dundas's India budget is detailed at sufficient length, and it was received with so little attention by the house, that even its introducer would have been flattered by a few remarks on either side with respect to his eastern operations.

The third chapter presents us with the celebrated letter of Bonaparte to the king, which was answered by an official note with the subscription of 'Grenville.' The substance of this note was expanded afterwards into a speech before the house of lords by the subscriber, and the house, with very few exceptions, approved the rejection of the proposals to negotiate. Among the commons they were treated with as little ceremony; and Bonaparte's name was accompanied with epithets fitter for the meridian of Billingsgate than for men who were entrusted with the reins of government. The speeches of Mr. Erskine, Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Fox, in this memorable debate, are well detailed; and from these may be formed a tolerable estimate of their respective abilities as orators. The union with Ireland occupies the fourth chapter, in which we were much amused by an insinuation in the house of lords, that the allowance of the peers of Ireland to sit in the commons' house of parliament was 'calculated to create infinite confusion, by blending peers of the realm with commoners—at once vitiating the blood of the nobility, and degrading those of high birth from their rank in society.' Such a strange idea might very well harmonise with the pride of the German or the late French *noblesse*, among whom blood is or was considered as an essential and indelible quality; but how it can apply to the peerage of these kingdoms, where marriages are contracted every day between the peer and the *roturière* without scandal, and the blood of the highest noble scarcely differs in the lightest shade from that of the lowest commoner, we cannot possibly conceive. The fact is, that what is called *mésalliance* cannot take place among us; the third generation untitles the youngest children of the highest rank; and the sixth finds them in every occupation of life. Take a hundred persons promiscuously from the exchange or the royal levee; and their respective ancestors at the sixth generation upwards will be found alike in rank, property, and every other quality. And herein consists one of the great advantages of our own over other countries. We have no cast of nobility; our peerage is an hereditary office merely; every man in the empire is eligible into it; and as only one of a family can ever possess the office, the rest are blended with the general mass of the people;—two separate interests cannot in this country, as in Germany now, and formerly in France, be ever established.

In Ireland, a more ridiculous, or, if we were to express it in its proper terms, a more barbarous and wicked proof of equality took place on the debates of the union. Two of the chief senators, not contented with arguing the point in the representative house, had recourse to the disgraceful fashion of their own country: five shots were in consequence exchanged, and the

chancellor of the exchequer was wounded in the arm. The debate, however, proceeded; and these gentlemen, without reflecting on the outrageous insult they thus offered to the laws of their country, their mutual attempt to commit murder, and the degradation of placing themselves on a level with attorneys' clerks or unfledged ensigns, resumed their senatorial occupations, and persevered in their argumentative opposition. We shall not cease to brand such a conduct, wherever it occurs to us, with the contempt it deserves—and especially in the present instance, as it forms a more peculiar characteristic of our neighbours on the other side of the water than of ourselves. Among the many good effects of the union, it may be considered as not the least, that the barbarous and vindictive spirit of the Irish will have a chance of being softened down, or at least preserved only for useful and honorable purposes. The question itself was carried with great ease, notwithstanding the speeches delivered were the most vehement we have ever perused; but it may occasion some regret that the opportunity was not then embraced of freeing the state from farther discussion on the rights of the Catholics, and those of various other denominations who are without the pale of their church.

In the fifth chapter, Mr. Sheridan's attempt to bring the Dutch expedition before the house is detailed at some length. He was answered in an explicit, if not a very satisfactory manner, by Mr. Dundas, whose account of the killed, and of those who died of their wounds, diminished very considerably the general belief of the hard conflicts in which the army was said to have been engaged—the killed amounting, according to the statement of this gentleman, to only eight hundred and forty-six, and those who died of their wounds to not more than one hundred and eighty-five. The sick and wounded admitted into the hospitals are stated at 4,088;—thus, according to this calculation of the sick and wounded, not one in twenty-two died; not one in eight received any injury at all; and not more than one in eighteen received any fatal accident. These facts are curious: but numerous private letters from Holland having exaggerated probably the distresses of the army, had so prepossessed the public mind, that the official statement seems to have afforded but little general satisfaction. The inquiry was, after a little further debate, stifled by a very great majority. Additional subsidies engaged the attention of the lords, and eventually of the commons; when, after so many averred motives for the war, Mr. Pitt at length reduced it to one word, namely, *security*. He proceeded in his usual manner—

"It was also more than this; security against a danger the greatest that ever threatened the world—a danger which never existed before in any period of society—which threatened and had been resisted

by all the nations of Europe, and by none with so much success as our own, because by none so uniformly, and with so much energy. Our resistance had not been confined to external force; it had joined internal policy and wise legislative measures, to oppose Jacobinism in the bosom (he was sorry to have found it there) of our own country.

"How was it discovered that Jacobinism had disappeared in France? It was now centred in one man, nursed in its school, who had gained celebrity under its auspices, and was at once the child and the champion of its atrocities—*Bonaparte*.

"Our security in negotiation was to be this man, who was now the organ of all that was destructive in the revolution. Granting that 200,000,000*l.* had been expended for the words "just and necessary," it had been expended for the best of causes—to protect the dearest rights, to defend the most valuable privileges, the laws, the liberties, the happiness of our country; and for such objects as much more would we spend, and as much more should we find." P. 171.

Fortunately for the country, this speaker was not permitted to verify his last words; yet a great majority concurred with him in the debate. The farther suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act excited some severe altercation in both houses; but, as usual, the minister again succeeded.

Sir F. Burdett asserted that—

"—the power conferred by this bill had been already placed in the hands of men who abused it; illegal warrants had been issued out; powers not known to the constitution were passed into the hands of Bow-street ruffians upon the warrants of clerks in offices, who, under their authority, went down to Manchester, and dragged masters of families from their own houses at night, amidst the cries of those families; handcuffed and loaded them with irons; shut them up in Clerkenwell prison, where they were lodged under pain of body and mind. When out of their bands, they applied to the humanity of the jailor for relief, in consequence of the swellings of their legs occasioned by the treatment of these savages. What would the immortal Chatham have said on the recital of such oppression? the thunder of his eloquence would have shaken the house, and the avenues would have been thronged with auditors, whilst he had pointed out wherein the superiority of our country, wherein the excellence of our constitution, consisted. It was in this, that the cottage of the peasant was as sacred as the palace of the king: though humbly thatched, it was secure, and an asylum which dared not be violated. He would have raised a storm from which the senators would gladly have screened their heads, and hastened to their homes:—but, now, the character of the house was power and not language, and majorities did not depend on reasoning." P. 180.

A strange veil seems to have been thrown over the proceedings in the Cold-bath-fields' prison, and the more so, because, if

lord Belgrave's mode of exonerating ministers from the charge of inhumanity be allowed, a question naturally suggests itself which it is difficult to answer. The ministers, according to his lordship, are not culpable, 'because there had been an accidental inattention in the superintendant of a prison.' This accidental inattention refers, we believe, to the case of colonel Despard. But this does not appear to have been the only accident of the sort; since a number of other persons, confined merely on suspicion, were proved to have been equally ill-treated. Yet we cannot find that ministers ever testified the remotest disapprobation of the jailor's conduct.

From parliamentary debates, we are carried, in the sixth chapter, to the East Indies, and our attention is engaged by the war with Tippoo Sultaun. The secret causes of this war still remain, it is properly observed, to be explored; the event, however, was glorious to the British arms. The East-India company increased its territories at the expense of the defeated monarch, whose dominions were divided, upon his death, between the company, the Nizam, the Mahrattas, and a descendent of the ancient rajahs of Mysore. The capture of the capital gave wealth to our troops; and the monarch was interred with all the honors due to his imperial station. From India we are transported to America, where the death of the great and good Washington is the only event we meet with to disturb the happiness of that country.

The foreign history commences with chapter the seventh; in which is given an account of Bonaparte's new constitution, and his attempt to negotiate with England. The eighth chapter dilates on the affairs of the Ligurian and Batavian republics, and the horrors exercised at Naples, in which the vindictive spirit of royalty seemed to contend with republicanism in cruelty and ferocity.

'But whatever tyranny was exercised in the north of Italy, whatever vengeance was let loose on those whom caprice or principle might have led to the adoption of other forms of government than those under which, previous to the invasion of the French, the inhabitants of those now devoted countries had been accustomed to live, they were light and trivial compared to the unexampled horrors which deluged the territory of Naples. The violation of the treaties entered into with the members of the late republican government of that country is now become a part of history: and were not the details of these transactions (of which we gave but a very slight sketch in our narrative of the events of the last year) authenticated by the most incontrovertible testimony, we should be led to refuse our belief to the commission of deeds, the bare recital of which must strike every mind with dismay and horror. The vengeance of the court of Sicily remained yet unsatiated with its multitudes of victims. After six months of carnage, in which had fallen on the scaf-

fold, or perished at the gallows, whatever Naples contained most distinguished for talent, or most illustrious for birth, the bloody axe, the dungeon, or exile, continued the dreadful instruments of its impolitic vengeance. Scarcely a family in Naples but had to lament the loss of some relation. Fidelity to the royal cause in parents, essential services rendered to the court, was no exemption from the calamity of seeing their children massacred before their eyes. Here a whole posterity was swept away; there whole families, and those of the highest class, became extinct.' P. 223.

The apparent destruction of the French interest in Egypt, by the treaty for their quitting the country, forms the most interesting part of this chapter, which concludes with the general conduct of the courts of Berlin, Sweden, Copenhagen, and Spain, at this period.

The ninth chapter is full of action. The decisive campaigns of Bonaparte and Moreau are described with great spirit; and the conduct of Massena in his arduous situation gives him a claim to very high distinction. He was sent from Paris, not to conquer, for that could not be expected, but to retain possession of the town of Genoa as long as possible. In this he justified to the utmost the opinion formed of his bravery and military prudence. He saved the French territories from an earlier invasion, and surrendered the town at such a time, that the Austrians, flushed with their victory, pursued with confidence the plan formed in the cabinet of Vienna, and were already in opinion masters of the south of France. Their general, in the midst of these presumptuous hopes, is appalled by the defeat of his troops a hundred miles in his rear, by an army descending with Bonaparte from the Alps; and, instead of advancing to the conquest of France, he measures back his steps to encounter this formidable name:—the decisive battle of Marengo restores Italy to the French, and renders Bonaparte the arbiter of Europe. At the same time, the affairs of France revive in Egypt. The British ministry refuse to confirm the convention entered into with Kleber; hostilities are renewed; the grand-vizier is completely defeated, and the French are again masters of this entire province. Thus terminates the almost romantic history of the year 1800. At its commencement, the government of Bonaparte was deemed to be without stability: but his genius pervaded every department of the state; he gave the evidence of facts as a decisive proof of his capacity to treat with foreign powers; and every thing seemed to augur that he would be the most powerful sovereign in Europe.

The principal occurrences of the year are detailed in the usual manner, in which are many circumstances highly honorable to our navy; and it is not without pleasure that every Englishman will see so large a portion of this department thus

occupied. Among the public papers, is the correspondence between lord Grenville, Mr. Hammond, and citizen Otto, on the attempted negotiation. The selection of biographical anecdotes is very judicious. An admirably-drawn character is given of the great Catharine of Russia, as she is called, although her right to such a title may well be doubted. Lewis XVI. and Charles I. form the subjects of two other papers: and a long account of the poet Burns completes this division of the work. In the part allotted to the manners of nations, we are entertained chiefly with oriental habits and superstitions: but it concludes with customs nearer home; and the singular rites of a sect in Wales, denominated *jumpers*, may vie in absurdity with the stupendous follies of the faquirs of Malabar. In classical and polite criticism the pen of Dr. Aikin is distinguished; yet in this branch room might have been found, if a little retrenchment had been made from the philosophical class, for other names besides those of Dr. Aikin and Dr. Currie. Under the philosophical class we were surprised to meet with some useful information on *kitchen gardening*; though there are also several other papers as little entitled to insertion under such a head. The work concludes with poetry, and a general review of domestic literature. In the former are some judicious extracts from Hayley, Sotheby, and Bloomfield: in the latter, the compiler has availed himself, with great skill, of the advantages afforded to him by the monthly publications. On the whole, this volume will not be found inferior to its predecessors; and as well on account of the matter contained in it, as the manner in which every subject is arranged and discussed, it is calculated to afford much entertainment and instruction to the general reader.

ART. VI.—*Excursions from Bath. By the Rev. Richard Warner.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

WE have always accompanied Mr. Warner with pleasure; and if, as an historian, we have occasionally differed from him, we will not revive the little disagreement (it has been indeed but slight) in our tours. We will proceed with him cheerily, as before.

These excursions are three in number, contained in four letters. In the first, he passes from Bath, through Frome, to Longleat, and thence round by Witham Friary to Stourhead and Hindon. From Hindon (Letter II.) he advances to Fonthill, Wilton, and Salisbury; and returns by Warminster and Trowbridge to Bath. It is not easy to contrive a tour more pleasing, or which contains objects of entertainment so various and so truly interesting in many different respects.

In the second excursion, Mr. Warner marches eastward to Pickwick, to Corsham, and to Spy Park; and thence directs his course northward to Bowood, Chippenham, and Malmsbury, including Charlton Park. He returns by Badminton and Old Sodbury to Bath.

In the third excursion he follows nearly the course of the Avon to Frocester; proceeds eastward to Cirencester; and returns in a somewhat devious track, including Tetbury, before he arrives at Tortworth, in the more direct road to Bath.

Our author's apology for this undertaking, new and unusual to him, we shall transcribe from the introduction to the first letter.

'To JAMES COMRIE, Esq.

'DEAR SIR, *Bath, Sept. 1st*, 1800.

'You have imposed upon me so arduous a task, that I feel an almost insuperable diffidence at attempting to perform it. When I led you through the wild scenery of Wales, I proceeded without fear or hesitation; my work was easy; I had little else to do than to describe the face which nature wears in that incomparable country, where the features are in general so strong and well defined, that I must have been a miserable painter indeed had my portrait been altogether without resemblance. Besides, I had the field to myself, my plan had not been anticipated, and my letters consequently borrowed some interest and recommendation from novelty; but in the present case I see formidable difficulties on every side. Here I must exchange the simplicity of nature for the intricacies of art, and descend from the grand to the minute—from the mountain, the precipice, and the cataract, original manners and ancient customs, to the park and to the picture-gallery, to the refinements of luxury, and the elegancies of polished life. Innumerable examples of *vertù*, and exquisite specimens of the fine arts, present themselves for description; and what is still more deterring, a line is chalked out for me, a great part of which has already been trodden by taste and science, by a Gilpin and a Maton. Your requests, however, have with me always the force of commands; I hasten, therefore, to comply with them, and to lead you through a part of Wiltshire, in an excursion which must prove highly gratifying to you, if I am fortunate enough to convey a tolerably accurate idea of the many beauties which it exhibits.' P. 1.

It is however in this line that we must particularly notice Mr. Warner's success; for it is in a great measure a new one. On the whole, we are considerably pleased with his descriptions of collections of pictures. His historical remarks are concise and pertinent; they lead to those points of history which elucidate most strikingly the character, and render it most interesting to the observer. The pictures have been often described, and we shall not again copy catalogues too generally known.

The account of Holloway, the receptacle of the beggars who infest the streets of Bath, is truly humorous and interesting. It is a little novel, where the real *dénouement* is in the commencement admirably disguised. The various objects in the first part of the excursion around Bath are well described, and we shall select the following judicious defence of the antiquary's researches.

'The tedious hill above Midford brings us at length to a level, a higher ground than we have trodden since we left Bath, and opens an extensive prospect to the right, quite into the county of Wilts. Proceeding to the five-mile stone, we reach the village of Hinton, and turn to the left, in order to survey the ruins of its abbey, and the remains of Farley-castle in its neighbourhood;—a rich treat to the antiquary, and not undeserving the attention of those who prefer the beauties of nature to the vestiges of former magnificence. Indeed, did the deviation afford us nothing but dilapidated cloisters and mouldering turrets, I should still think our trouble repaid; for lightly as the antiquarian taste is esteemed, and much as it is ridiculed, it notwithstanding opens no mean sources of gratification to the man who cultivates it rationally, and leads to consequences interesting to society, and beneficial to the individual. Did the enjoyment of the antiquary consist in the unmeaning contemplation of unintelligible fragments and time-eaten stones, it would be fair to consider him as senseless as the objects to which he directs it: but when the remains of ancient days awaken curiosity and excite research; when they induce inquiries into the manners and customs, opinions and practices, of former times; when they lead to a comparison between the state of the arts amongst our forefathers and with us their descendants; when they are brought to the illustration of historical difficulties or distant events; above all, when they entice the mind to sober reflexion, and to a fair estimate of our present state, the evanescence of all human labours, and the vanity of all human schemes, the pursuit then assumes a more dignified aspect; it asserts the praise of contributing not only to the entertainment, but to the information of the community; it strengthens the religious principle, and makes the man better and wiser than he would be without it.' P. 22.

Farley-castle, its splendid monuments and mummies, the manufactures of Frome, and the beautiful ornaments of Longleat, are described with great propriety. Marston-Bigot house, and Maiden-Bradley, are shortly noticed. The pictures of Stourhead detain him longer. But we shall prefer for our extract our author's truly interesting account of the classic scenes in the vicinity.

'But the entertainment which the inside of the mansion at Stourhead affords, is surpassed by the gratification that arises from a view of its pleasure-grounds; which, to speak generally, I could say, exceed in tasty disposition and appropriate ornament, any I have ever had the opportunity of seeing. Nature, it must be confessed, had already formed a spot every way capable of being converted into a

perfect elysium, by the most agreeable variety of hill and valley, terrace and dale, when Mr. Hoare took the canvas in hand, to add those masterly touches which give life, and spirit, and finish to the whole. He has, indeed, executed his work with judgement and taste, and produced a picture beautiful in its parts, and perfect in the *tout-ensemble*. Almost as soon as we quit the house, the path to the lake declines gently through a velvet lawn, sprinkled with firs and beech-trees, and evergreens; the hill rising to the right and sinking to the left. These quickly thicken, and form themselves into a wood, admitting only occasional glances at the beautiful objects in the dale to the left, and on the lake below. The little church, with its open worked battlements, and the magnificent temple of Apollo swelling from the dark side of the hill above it, are caught through the first opening: these are succeeded by a view of the Pantheon, suddenly bursting upon the eye from the opposite side of the lake, which stretches at its feet in tranquil majesty, embosomed on all sides in wooded elevations, rising amphitheatrically around it. To the margin of this piece of water (which, though covering only twenty acres, is so judiciously lost in every part amongst the woods, as to allow the imagination to stretch it to any extent) we are at length conducted, where a neat ferry-boat offers itself as the conveyance to the opposite side of the lake. We now reach classic ground, and, dropping all modern acquaintance, associate for a time only with the gods and heroes of antiquity. Here we have the opportunity of surveying and admiring the first piece of water. This is supplied with copious never-failing springs, (amongst which the chief one of the river Stour lends its powerful assistance) and preserves uniformly the same height, the waste water being carried off by an artificial cascade, so judiciously disposed as to form, from another point, a most beautiful feature in the scenery. The picture from the place of landing assumes a new face; but equally interesting and magnificent with those we have already noticed. Before us lies the lake, from whose verdant margin the wooded hills shoot up in all the majesty of shade; to the right appears the temple of Apollo, which, from the low point where we view it, appears to hold a loftier situation than before; and on the opposite side of the water the old stone bridge, and the Doric temple of the goddess Flora, disclose themselves. We now proceed to the grotto (invisible till it be reached) constructed in the side of a hill, and consisting of a passage, and the small apartment to which it leads. This is illumined by a circular hole at top, which, overgrown with ivy and other creeping plants, admits a sort of gloomy indistinct light, well calculated to aid the other circumstances of the spot, in deeply impressing the imagination, and assisting the belief that the figures which adorn the grotto are the living tutelary deities of the sacred waters within. On two sides of the apartment are arches, one by which it is entered, and an opposite one by which it is quitted. To the right appears a deep recess, or cavern, within which is the figure of a sleeping nymph, in white marble, reclining on a pedestal; and immediately under her a bath of crystalline water, supplied by a copious perennial spring issuing from the hill behind the statue. On a marble slab, which forms the first step of the bath, are the following lines

by Mr. Pope, who frequently wooed the Muses in the shades of Stourhead; they are the elegant translation of some Latin verses by cardinal Bembo:—

"Nymph of the grot, these sacred springs I keep,
And to the murmur of these waters sleep;
Ah! spare my slumbers, gently tread the cave,
And drink in silence, or in silence lave."

"Hujus nympha loci, sacri custodia fontis,
Dormio, dum blandæ sentio murmur aquæ.
Parce meum, quisquis tangis cava marmora, somnum
Rumpere, sive bibas, sive lavere, tace."

'Opposite to the arch by which we depart from the grotto is a smaller cavern, inhabited by an ancient river god, *pater Stour*, I presume, sitting upon a large inclined urn, from the mouth of which pours a flood of water, said to be the chief spring of the river Stour, which, rising here, takes a circuitous course through Dorsetshire, marries the Avon near Christ-Church in Hampshire, and loses itself and its companion in the ocean, about two miles below that town. Over the arch in front of this recess hangs a wooden tablet, with some lines allusive to this aquatic deity.

"Hæc domus, hæ sedes, hæc sunt penetralia magni
Amnis; in hoc residens facto de cautibus antro
Undis jura dabat, nymphisque colentibus undas."

'From this magic spot the path conducts us to a magnificent edifice called the Pantheon, built after the model of that noble antique temple at Rome. Here, as in all the other tenements of Stourhead, magnificence has acted under the direction of perfect taste; and the large sum of twelve thousand pounds has been expended in a manner that at once interests the imagination and pleases the judgement. This structure stands on that part of the bank where the lake spreads itself into its greatest breadth, and commands all the objects before enumerated, with the addition of the beautiful Gothic cross;—a view, in my opinion, superior to that from the temple of Apollo, though not generally esteemed so; since the latter is a bird's-eye one, and every thing is seen below it; whereas the Pantheon is more on a level with most of the objects which compose the picture, and has the advantage of looking up to the others. This building consists of a portico, or vestibulum, and an adytum; the first is formed by four elegant columns of the Corinthian order, the second contains two antique busts, that on the right Alexander, and that on the left Pompey. An iron gate separates this member of the structure from the adytum, which, seen through its gateways, exhibits a most impressive sight. A circular opening in the dome admits the light, which receives a rich golden tinge from some yellow glass introduced into the aperture. The walls are stained of a deep purple colour, finely contrasting and relieving the brilliant white marble statues ranged round the apartment, and standing on superb pedestals of different foreign marbles—the whole forming such an august exhibition as subjects the understanding to the control of fancy; and

the mind, taken by surprise, assents for a moment to the belief of the truth of classical mythology.' P. 104.

'The path leaving the Pantheon enters a grotto, through which it passes and ascends the hill behind the temple, conducting us in its way over the turnpike-road, which is very artfully carried under it, but so obscured by wood as not to be visible. Another variety now occurs, an hermitage, or wood-house, formed of old pollard trees, through which we are led to an eminence, when the view becomes more extensive, and, the immediate objects being lost, the valley opens to the right and left. Leaving this, a few paces more bring us to the temple of Apollo, another admirable imitation of classical architecture, being a copy from the temple of the Sun at Balbec. This is a circular building of the Corinthian order, surrounded by a peristyle, the entablature of which assumes a curious though elegant escallop or semi-circular form, supported by twelve pillars. As many niches adorn the face of the outside of the temple, each filled with its deity, cast in lead from antique models. A large cast statue of the Belvidere Apollo occupies the interior, which is lighted from above by a circular hole. The roof of the temple spreads into a dome, and has a double cieling; in the lower is the aperture, and in the coving of the other a splendid gilt representation of the solar rays, which, receiving the real light of this orb by an artful construction, throws into the temple below a most splendid reflexion when the sun is in its strength. From the temple of Apollo we follow a descending path, which penetrates a subterraneous passage, where the public road again crosses the walk at right angles, without being discovered; the latter abasing itself in its turn, and taking a gloomy course under the turnpike road. Emerging again into day, we are soon led to the temple of Flora, of the Doric order, simple and chaste as its tutelary deity. From the portico we take in the wide-spread lakes and all its adjuncts, seen here under new circumstances and different combinations; over the gate of the temple is this prohibition of entrance to the profane, *Procul, O procul, este, profani*; and within it are, a vase of composition from an antique model, two classical altars, and as many *sellæ* and busts. The last object which claims our attention in the gardens is the Gothic cross before mentioned, a most sumptuous piece of architecture, purchased of the corporation of Bristol by Mr. Henry Hoare, and transported by him to Stourhead.' P. 111.

This delightful spot has detained us so long, that we must leave Fonthill, a house 'where expense' HAD (that '*had*,' how sad a passage 'tis!) 'reached its utmost limits in furniture and ornaments; where every room is [*was*] a gold mine, and every apartment a picture-gallery.' This splendid seat does not however detain our author long; and he proceeds to Wardour castle, where the paintings are described at somewhat greater length.

Mr. Warner passes through Wilton in some degree too hastily. We have however followed many tourists in this inter-

esting spot: but no one seems to have remarked the singular incongruity between the Palladian bridge and the old mansion: it is a strip of lace on a worn-out coat. He steps with greater celerity through the streets of Salisbury, but enlarges considerably on Stonehenge and Old Sarum.

Of these the latter attracts attention only once in seven years; and as to the former, it is sufficient to say that our author treads in the fallacious steps of Mr. King, upon whose Munimenta Antiqua we have already had occasion to animadvert *. He of course believes this stupendous pile to be a druidical relic; but, more extraordinary still! a pile erected not by the aboriginal inhabitants, the αυτοχθονες, of the country, but by a migration, and that a second migration too, of Belgic Gauls! Upon this subject we need only remark the singularity of bringing Belgic Gauls to erect in another country, with peculiar labor and art, a religious monument for rites which they did not acknowledge as their own, and which were indeed brought to them from this island, however they may have originally been introduced here.

In the second excursion, Corsham and Mr. Methuen's new picture-gallery, with its intended ornaments, are shortly described. Lacock-abbey also shares our author's attention; but the greater part of his commendations are reserved for Bowood, the seat of the marquis of Lansdown. We have little doubt of its meriting all the praises bestowed on it; but cannot subscribe to the entire panegyric bestowed on the talents of its owner.

Charlton Park, in the neighbourhood of Malmsbury, offers a curious collection of paintings; and Badminton, the seat of the duke of Beaufort, one peculiarly numerous, curious, and valuable.

In the third excursion we meet with nothing very strongly interesting. We find a manufacture of an unexpected kind, viz. that of sperma-ceti from the remains of animal substances; and we may now, in the manner of Hamlet, without the imputation of 'considering too curiously,' trace the fine lady illuminating assemblies which she once adorned. Blaze-castle furnishes a noble collection of paintings. The account of the ornaments of Berkeley-castle is also extensive; but we shall rather select the description of the castle itself and the scenery around.

'Much variety of country and interesting scenery are offered to the traveler in his ride from this place to Berkeley, a distance of nine miles; the Severn, with its playful windings and rich banks, opening occasionally to the left, and the grand hills of Stinchcomb, Frocester, &c. swelling out of a highly-cultivated and populous country to the right. The august castle attracts attention as we approach the village, venerable on account of its antiquity, and awful from its having been the scene of one of the most atrocious murders recorded

* See our 30th vol. New Arr. p. 361.

in English history. It is situated at the southern extremity of the park, on a gentle rising of the ground, which gives it a view not only over the grounds in its neighbourhood, but also of a large tract of distant country—the fertile fields of Glocestershire, the reaches of the Severn, and the mountains of Monmouthshire. Founded originally in the reign of Henry I. by Roger de Berkeley, and completed in that of Stephen, by Roger the third earl of Berkeley, it has been preserved ever since entire and unaltered, except in some little circumstances which modern ideas of convenience demanded, and exhibits therefore the most complete specimen of ancient Norman military architecture in the kingdom. The noble owner has fitted up the interior in a manner consistent with the style of its venerable outside, judiciously excluding all modern knick-knacks, and admitting nothing in the line of furniture which does not associate with the ideas of feudal times and old English grandeur. An ancient gateway opens into the basse court; through which we enter the hall, a fine old raftered room, with a gallery at one end for the accommodation of the minstrelsy on days of high carousing. From this apartment a small passage conducts us to the ancient chapel of the castle, long since decayed, lined with oak, having a gallery for the heads of the family to sit in during prayers, and a confessional for their use, when the stock of sin, becoming too heavy for the conscience, was to be removed by the wonder-working absolution of the accommodating priest.

'Connected with the chapel is the dining-room, wainscoted with oak, its cieling divided into square compartments by massive rafters of the same wood, and its walls decorated with ordinary full lengths, painted on wood, and probably imaginary, of—

'George earl of Berkeley, great great grandfather to the present earl; James I.; Jane Shore; Robert Fitzharding; and a picture of Reubens over the chimney.' P. 303.

The view from Frocester hill is highly beautiful and well described; but our account is already sufficiently extensive, and we must resist the temptation to copy it. The tunnel of the canal that unites the Thames and the Severn is an immense work, which claims equal admiration, on account of the extent, the labor, and the utility of the undertaking; but the description would afford little pleasure. Lord Bathurst's grounds will not obtain from the present age the compliments paid by Pope, as they are laid out in the stiff style of queen Anne's days. We shall conclude this article with our author's delineation of Wick rocks, premising a mineralogical error, at the distance of not many pages, in which he confounds strontian with barytes.

'The geology of Wick rocks affords as much curiosity to the naturalist as the beauty of the scene offers gratification to the man of taste. In the most lofty part they rise to the height of two hundred feet or upwards, and consist of a series of beds of lime-stone, and petrosilex, alternating with each other; exhibiting, towards the west, a vein of coal of fourteen inches thick, and another of lead, both formerly worked, shouldered on each side by a mass of petrosi-

lex. In the centre of the glen we find a bed of lime-stone, nearly six hundred yards in breadth, inclosed between two beds of petrosilex, of nearly the same horizontal dimensions, all dipping to the west-north-west, in an angle of sixty feet with the plain of the horizon. Imbedded in this are lead ore, spathous iron ore, cauk or barytes, and that large species of anomia of which a profusion is found in the rocks of Mendip, Hotwells, and Derbyshire. The division of petrosilex adjoining to this great bed on the east combines again with the lime rock on the road to Doynton, and at this union becomes a mill-stone or pudding-stone. Below the glen to the westward, by the side of the Bristol road, and a little under the surface of the red ground which is sufficiently obvious to the eye, are deposited a great profusion of geodes or nodules, containing within them beautiful quartz crystal, with calcareous dog-tooth spar.' P. 342.

ART. VII.—*On the Nature and Occasion of Psalm and Prophecy, twelve Critical Dissertations. By James Hurdis, D.D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards.* Johnson.

THE author of these dissertations, who hath recently paid the debt of nature, was unquestionably possessed of considerable talents; but whether his judgement at all times kept pace with his genius, there is much reason to question. His poetical compositions abound with beauties of description and sentiment which elevate him to no inconsiderable degree of pre-eminence, while he has occasionally showed the most bombastic expressions and turgidities of thought. Analogous to this sketch of him as a poet, is his character as a critic; and the work before us will amply confirm the decision.

In his first dissertation, Dr. Hurdis, having proposed his subject, and instanced the several points undertaken to be proved, proceeds to exhibit a view of the several feasts of the law, as connected with the climate of Syria; and thence advances the first part of his hypothesis, viz. that the leading festival of the Hebrew nation was that of the former and latter rain, which he describes with its attendant ceremonies. To prop the superstructure reared on this foundation, the doctor has recourse to the state of the Syrian atmosphere when the psalm was performed; and next adverting to the general state of nature, describes the judgement or annual assise, and attempts thence to illustrate some peculiar notions of the Hebrews.

The second dissertation carries us forward to the period of performing *the psalm*, which, according to Dr. Hurdis, was by night, and during illuminations. At the same time he insists *the word* was imparted. Hence, he proceeds—not very consistently, as we think—to the singular regulation of Jeroboam;

from which digression he formally advances to consider the double nature of the psalm; when suddenly breaking off, he adverts to the mode of warfare among the Hebrews, and the hour they entered into and quitted the field. Then commenting on the voyage of St. Paul, and the psalm of Judith, with the manner in which it was exhibited, the dissertation closes with observations on the Hebrew season of peace.

The sixty-eighth psalm is the leading topic of Dr. Hurdis's third dissertation. Having closed his remarks upon it, he diverts to the choral dance performed upon the slaughter of Goliath, the thanksgiving of Hannah, and the triumphant dance of Jephthah's daughter. The congruity of this latter subject introduces our author in his wildly devious route to the psalms of Deborah, and of Miriam; upon the last of which a question is grounded, Whether the Hebrew psalm originated in Egypt? Deciding it to be an Egyptian custom, Dr. Hurdis next exhibits Pharaoh's daughter as leader of the chorus; and thence proceeds to seek for proof of the psalm being performed by Jacob before the descent of his family into Egypt. Another digression here follows relative to the choral customs of Asia compared with those of the South-Sea islands, combining descriptions from Homer, Hesiod, Virgil, and Horace.

In the fourth dissertation, and to the eighth inclusive, Dr. Hurdis distributes the book of psalms into separate classes. Of these, the first commences with the penitential song of Zion, which having considered, he proceeds to the *forty-second* and *forty-third*, the *eightieth*, *eighty-third*, *eighty-fourth*, *hundred and forty-third*, and *sixty-ninth*.

Having referred to this division such compositions of the psalmist as are expressive of the fears and apprehensions of a dejected people, with whom despair is more prevalent than hope, he includes in the second order those odes of 'a more lively class, which were sung in Israel, when surrounded by the enemy and waiting for the rain to descend: such as display the most ardent and pious confidence that it will not long be delayed.' Amongst those of this description, which Dr. Hurdis considers as the most elegant and remarkable, we may instance the *tenth*, *eleventh*, *twenty-seventh*, *thirty-seventh*, *sixty-fifth*, and *hundred and fourth*.

The third class of psalms is next considered and divided into two descriptions, the first comprehending the whole of the sixth dissertation, and consisting of psalm the *twenty-ninth*, *seventy-seventh*, *eighty-fifth*, *ninety-third*, *ninety-fifth* and *sixth*, *hundred and fourth*, *hundred and twenty-sixth*, and *hundred and forty-eighth*.

The second description of psalms of the third class, making the subject of the seventh and eighth dissertations, are the *eighteenth*, *twenty-third*, *thirty-third*, *thirty-sixth*, *forty-seventh*,

forty-eighth, fiftieth, sixty-fifth, sixty-eighth, seventy-sixth, ninety-seventh, ninety-eighth, one hundred and forty-ninth, and the psalm in the *third* chapter of Habakkuk. To this arrangement and discussion critical observations are subjoined.

The ninth dissertation is dedicated to a new subject, viz. that of PROPHECY; in respect to which, Dr. Hurdis inquires into the time of its communication; and to prove that it was, in its regular course, delivered at the same season with the psalm, he dwells minutely upon the history of the mission of Elijah, whom he styles the prophet of the former rain; and having offered an explanation of his running before Ahab, adds proofs that Saul and David ran in the same manner. Stating some instances in reference to Solomon, Samuel, Balaam, &c. that the word was communicated by night in vision or dream, and suggesting reflexions on the feast of Moab, and on Abraham's rescue of Lot, the dissertation closes with such evidence as the professor deems sufficient to evince that prophecy was delivered at the season of the former rain, from the age of Abraham to that of Elijah.

The doctor, continuing his researches, introduces his tenth dissertation with the observation, that, about the period of time he is discussing, the prophetic character assumed a uniform complexion, which ever afterwards attached to it. Evidence is consequently adduced to show that the successors of Elijah prophesied at the same season of the year; and these exemplifications are accordingly applied both to Elisha and Isaiah, in this dissertation; whilst the next extends them to Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Daniel; and the twelfth to the minor prophets.

The dissertations are followed by the annexed conclusion.

'Thus have I shown, to the satisfaction, I trust, and full conviction of my reader, what is the *nature* and what the *occasion* of psalm and prophecy. Let it not be imagined that I have exhausted the subject, and suffered no proofs which may favour my conclusions to be kept in reserve. My intention, in this volume, has been to state briefly what I have found to be fact, and to support truth by *sufficient* evidence. I have therefore appealed to the psalms only in a limited number of instances, and from the prophecies I have drawn still fewer examples. He who entertains an opinion, that I have not fully established my assertion, that the season of the promulgation of prophecy and of singing the psalm was at a great public feast held previous to the former rain, must be referred to the Scriptures at large for farther information. I have planted a rock upon which criticism will find it safe to rely, and I must leave it to the curious to build upon it the fabric of perfect knowledge by research. With safety can I pronounce, that labour thus applied will be well repaid; and that when the Scriptures have been examined by the above standard of investigation, they will be found to be truly worthy of that Holy Spirit which inspired their authors. It is to the superficial inquirer only that they appear to be clouded with imperfections. To him

who patiently considers their merits, it will be manifest, that they are capable of extorting admiration from the scholar who reviews them by the severest test. They are compositions truly incomparable for their beauty and sublimity, for their regard to unity of design and orderly arrangement; and are not to be charged in vain with the slightest critical defect.

'I will farther add, that the method here pursued is the only safe and effectual means of extracting from the Scriptures their genuine sense. To be able to understand the New Testament, we must be well acquainted with the Septuagint; and to comprehend the Septuagint, we ought to be critically versed in the Hebrew. When an extensive and accurate knowledge of the Hebrew tongue, supported by a patient investigation of the ancient customs of the East, has been applied to the illustration of the Septuagint, we may open the New Testament with sanguine hopes of completely understanding its language. Without such a foundation, and while we interpret apostles and evangelists, by appeal to those Greek classics, with which they had little or no acquaintance, imperfect and even contradictory explanations must arise. On the contrary, if the Scriptures are not studied through this elegant but deceitful medium, if they are investigated as it were *ab ovo*, in the manner above represented, I will venture to pronounce, that many doctrinal points upon which well-meaning but ill-informed Christians at present differ, will assume a sense so precise and determined, as to be no longer capable of being misinterpreted and controverted.' P. 266.

Such is the retrospect which Dr. Hurdis has taken of his own work; but in whatever light it might have appeared to himself—or however satisfactory, in his own estimation, the data which he denominates proofs—in our judgement they should be called by a different appellation, and rather contemplated as mere fancies, inconsistent, in many instances, with the very facts to which they appeal. The rock then upon which, to use the doctor's phrase, criticism may safely rely, is not that upon which he has built. That labor *well* applied to the study of the Scriptures will be well repaid, we are as thoroughly convinced of as we are that the Scriptures themselves, when thoroughly examined, will be found truly worthy of the divinity by whom they were inspired: but we must not read them through the spectacles of hypothesis, which would exhibit *men, like trees, walking*. When Dr. LOWTH began to deliver his Prelections, the art of Hebrew poetry was but little understood. Prejudices were in general so prevalent against it, when contrasted with the remains of Greece and of Rome, that his lectures were necessarily a sort of apology to excuse existing differences of opinion. The ingenuity, however, with which each topic was treated, the elegance of his translations, and the general beauty of his style, all joined to excite and conciliate the public attention. Since that period, Biblical criticism hath been in consequence considerably promoted; and HERDER, in particular, not

less accomplished with preparatory learning, while possessed of as vigorous a mind, has resumed the subject with the happiest success. Like Aristotle, who developed his principles of criticism from the poets of Greece, Herder had recourse to those of the Bible; and having considered nature, religion, manners and customs, with their respective peculiarities, as connected with his subject, has placed their productions in the most interesting light. Dr. Hurdis's attempt is somewhat similar, but without imitation, for he never appears to have heard even of Herder's :—we wish we could say he had rivaled or excelled this accomplished critic of the continent.

ART. VIII.—*The Poetical Works of Hector Macneill, Esq.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 14*s. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees. 1801.

IT gives us pleasure to find that this very interesting writer, to several of whose productions, when published separately, we have already paid the tribute of our approbation, has at length presented to the world a complete collection of his poems. Some of his most popular pieces being out of print, and continuing in great demand, he has, he tells us, at the solicitation of the booksellers, re-published them, and along with them all the other poems which he means to acknowledge. In making the selection from his MSS, Mr. Macneill expresses his fears that in some instances he may have been influenced more by a gratification of his own taste than a consideration of what would gratify the taste of others.

'There are,' says he, 'certain events in the early stages of life, which, on a retrospect, interest and charm perhaps beyond any other. Among these, scenes and circumstances annexed to youth and passion cannot fail to be remembered with peculiar pleasure, while the occasional and unpremeditated effusions which commemorate the joys that are past, and the friends that are no more, become, even with their faults, the children of our affection.' P. vi.

We believe that most readers of taste and feeling will learn with pleasure that the poet, whose works they are about to peruse an account of, has written on topics in which not his fancy merely, but his heart at the same time, has been interested. In reviewing the history of the poetry of every nation, it will be found that such passages as have called forth the unfeigned sensibility of their respective authors possess a peculiar charm, that these have formed in many instances the living principle of their attempts, and have secured to them immortality; after the mere abstractions of fancy, the splendid frost-works of the imagination, have ceased to excite either wonder or applause.

The first poem in this collection is the celebrated *History o' Will and Jean* *, or *Scotland's Scaith*. It appears by an advertisement prefixed, that Mr. Macneill wrote this moral tale at the instance, or at least with the knowledge and approbation, of the late Dr. Doig, the learned master of the grammar-school of Stirling, his particular friend, by whom, and under whose name, it was originally published.

Its object is to describe the baneful effects of spirituous liquors on the morals and happiness of the laboring poor. The hero is the very model of manly strength and beauty, with an affectionate and generous heart. The heroine is endued with all the charms and virtues befitting her humble situation. They meet, are mutually enamoured, marry, and pass three years in contentment and happiness. In an evil hour, Will is enticed into a house licensed to sell British spirits, *i. e.* whiskey. He becomes intoxicated, and repents, but sins again; at length he acquires a habit of swearing, and becomes hardened—Jean's patience is exhausted; and discontent and reproaches succeed to love and harmony in their once happy cottage.—Will alienates himself from home, becomes a politician, and forgets his own affairs: he soon degenerates into a downright profligate, and enlists for a soldier.—Jean, distrayed in her temper, her beauty, her health, and peace, is turned out of her dwelling, and thrown, with her infant children, a beggar on the world. The progress of their ruin is pourtrayed with a degree of truth, simplicity, and pathos, which irresistibly engages the attention, and affects the heart.

We have been told that the original intention of Mr. Macneill was to have composed a ballad that might have been sung in the streets and distributed from the stalls; and in this form was this beautiful pastoral first printed, without a name. But its merits could not be concealed; the phænomenon of such a poem being thrown on the public in such a form excited surprise and admiration; it sold with unexampled rapidity—ten thousand copies having been disposed of in a few months.

The success of this poem, and perhaps the benevolence of the author, induced him to continue the story in a second part, entitled the *Waes o' War* †. The sufferings of Jean with her infants at last terminate by their finding a retreat in the Valley of Roslin, where, after the miseries of the campaign in Flanders under the duke of York, in the course of which he loses a leg and is left for dead in the field of battle, Will at last joins them, and, instructed by adversity, learns to appreciate justly the blessings of industry and innocence; and we are left

* See our 13th vol. New Arr. p. 355.

† Woes of War.—See our 17th vol. New Arr. p. 231.

to suppose that this once happy pair are restored to peace and content.

The second part of Will and Jean, or the *Waes o' War*, is beautiful: in the ornaments of poetry it is superior to the first. The miseries of war in a defeated and retreating army are finely contrasted with the charms of peaceful nature in the beautiful Valley of Roslin, and the meeting of Will and Jean is drawn by the hand of a master:

> 'Thrice he kissed his long lost treasure!
> Thrice each child—but could not speak:
> Tears of love, and hope, and pleasure,
> Streamed in silence down his cheek.' Vol. i. p. 65.

But, after all, it may be questioned whether this continuation of the story does not take off somewhat from the unity of design, and the general effect of the poem as originally written. In this point of view, the addition to *Will and Jean* operates in some measure like the addition made by the author's countryman, Dr. Beattie, to his exquisite poem *The Hermit*. The doctor yielded, we have been told, to the remonstrances of those who could not bear that his high-souled sage should be left in 'darkness forlorn.'—Similar motives may have occasioned the second part of *Will and Jean*.

The poetical merit of the former part of this poem, great as it is, is inferior to its merit in a moral point of view. It is not easy to conceive any poem, or indeed any composition, to be better calculated for remedying the evil against which it is directed, or any evil that more loudly calls for a remedy. The consumption of spirits is the bane of the poor in every part of the united islands; but the consumption of Scotland is in a far greater proportion to its population than that of England or Ireland (we speak from certain information); and it increases with a rapidity that threatens every evil, physical and moral.

Next in succession is a poem '*To Eliza on her Marriage*,' which is gay and Horatian. The same character may be given to several succeeding epistles to ladies who were friends of the author. In these Mr. Macneill appears in a new character; and those who possess the volumes will in general acknowledge that he acquits himself with great success.

Of *The Harp*, a legendary tale in two parts, the reader will find a pretty full account in our journal, at the time of its original publication*. In the present edition we think it considerably improved, and are flattered by perceiving that the author has attended to some of our criticisms: we wish, however, he

* See vol. LXVIII. O. S. p. 125.

had struck out the last four lines, which we still think feeble and expletive.

By an advertisement prefixed to this poem, we learn that Mr. Ramsay, of Auchtertyre in Stirlingshire, who appears to such advantage as the correspondent of Burns during a tour through the Hebrides, heard, in conversation, the expression, 'I'll never burn my harp for a woman.' On inquiring into the meaning and origin of this proverb, he understood that it was founded on the story of a celebrated harper, who, it would appear, had, in a situation of great distress, burnt his harp for want of other fuel, to save his wife from perishing by cold; but had been repaid with ingratitude, the lady having soon afterwards deserted him for another. On this simple structure Mr. Macneill has built a poem of various incident, and of considerable extent. Here his language is pure English; but the ancient Scottish ballad is his model. *The Harp* is dramatic, descriptive, and pathetic; and we should be tempted to enlarge again on its merits, did our limits permit.

In these volumes we find several songs in the Scottish manner and dialect, which are in general written with great taste, simplicity, and delicacy. In these compositions Mr. Macneill excels all his predecessors, the Ayrshire ploughman excepted, with whom, nevertheless, he may stand a comparison.

We shall select one as a specimen that has not before been in print, so far as we have observed, making some slight changes in the orthography for the sake of English readers.

'JEANIE'S BLACK EE.

'Air.—*Cauld frosty Morning.*

'The sun rose so rosy, the grey hills adorning!
Light sprung the lavroc * and mounted so hie †;
When true to the tryst ‡ of blythe May's dewy morning
My Jeanie came linking § out o'er the green lea.
To mark her impatience, I crept 'mong the brakens ‖,
Oft—oft to the known path she turn'd her black ee ¶;
Then lying down dowylie **, sighed by the willow tree,
'Ha me mohátel na dousku me ††.'

'Soft through the green birches I stole to my jewel,
Streik'd ‡‡ on spring's carpet beneath the saugh tree!
"Think not, dear lassie, thy Willie's been cruel,"—
'Ha me mohátel na dousku me,'—
"With love's warm sensations I've marked your impatience,
Lang hid 'mong the brakens I watched your black ee—
You're not sleeping, pawkie §§ Jean! open these lovely een!"
'Ha me mohátel na dousku me!'

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* Lark. † High—pronounced hee. ‡ Appointment.
§ Coping lightly. ‖ Fern. ¶ Eye. ** Softly, sadly
†† Love me—'I am asleep, do not waken me'—the lady speaks.
‡‡ Stretched. §§ Cunning, sly.

" Bright is the whin's bloom each green knaw * adorning,
Sweet is the primrose bespangled with dew!
Yonder comes Peggy to welcome May morning!
Dark wave her † haffet-locks o'er her fair brow!
O! light! light she's dancing keen on the smooth daisied green,
Barefoot and kiltet ‡ half up to the knee!
While Jeanie is sleeping still, I'll run and sport my fill,"—
' I was asleep, and you've wakened me.'

" I'll run and whirl her round; Jeanie is sleeping sound;
Kiss her! and kiss her! there's no one can see!
Sweet! sweet's her honey mou!§" ' Well, I'm not sleeping now,
I was asleep, but ye wakened me.'
Laughing till like to drap, swift to my Jean I lap,
Kissed her ripe roses, and blest her black ee!
And ay since whene'er we meet, sing, for the song is sweet,
Ha me mohátel na dousku me.' Vol. ii. p. 87.

The elegy on the death of a beautiful boy in Jamaica, in pure English, pleases us much more than that on the death of the author's friend Dr. Doig, in the Scottish dialect and stanza. The occasion was a serious one, and was no doubt felt as such by Mr. Macneill. But we cannot sympathise with the sorrows of a man evidently so polished, who laments the loss of a friend, and that friend a great scholar, in broad Scotch. This is the only instance of ill taste we have found in these volumes.

In his *Epistle to C. L.* and in several other poems, our author shows a very happy vein of humor, more correct, and scarcely less poignant than that of Burns. In his *Links o' Forth* and his *Scottish Muse*, he challenges a still more direct comparison with that powerful genius. In these poems he adopts the favourite stanza of Burns, describing the scenery of his infancy, and touches on the incidents of his riper years. In the *Vision*, Coila, the tutelary spirit of his native district, addresses Burns, relates the incidents of his infancy, describes the dawnings of his genius, avows her favor and guardianship, and, under the pressure of poverty and neglect, displays the consolations she has to offer, and breathes into his soul the lofty aspirations, the unconquerable spirit of the bard. In like manner, in the last of the two poems above mentioned, the Muse addresses Macneill. The state of the poet is different, and so is her strain.

' Ill fated wand'rer! doomed to mane!
Wan sufferer! bleached with care and pain!

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* Knoll. † The side of the face—the temples. ‡ Having her clothes tucked up.
§ Honey-mouth.—In order to understand this song, it must be observed that the chorus, except in the last instance, is always repeated by the lady. In the rest of the song it is the lover that speaks.

How changed, alas! since vogie vain,
With spirits light,
Ye hail'd me first in untaught strain
On Strevlin's * height.

* * * * *

'Twas then, entranc'd in am'rous sang,
I mark'd you midst the rural thrang;
Ardent and keen, the whole day lang
With nature tane,
Slip frae the crowd and mix amang
Her simple train.

'Twas then I saw (alas! owre clear!)
Your future thriftless, lost career!
And while I blamed, wi' boding fear,
The tuneful art,
Your moral pride and truth sincere
Aye won my heart.' Vol. ii. p. 130.

With all deference to the author, we suspect it was not the 'Muse' that blamed the 'tuneful art.' This must have been some of the offspring of Mammon, some spirit of darkness in the colors of light. The Muse brings with her 'airs from heaven;'—this spirit, if she bring not 'blasts from hell,' breathes at least the cold damps of worldly prudence.

But passing over this mistake, we learn that this thriftless career compelled the author to leave his retreat and engage in the more active scenes of life. He flew to the East-Indies, and thence to the West-Indies,—the muse still following him.

'Whether to east or westward borne,
(Or flush'd with joy or wae-forlorn)
Ye hail'd the fragrant breath o'morn
Frae orange flower,
Or cassia-bud, or logwood thorn,
Or guava bower:

'Or frae the mist-cap'd mountain blue
Inhal'd the spicy gales that flew
Rich from pimento's groves that grew
In deep'ning green,
Crown'd with their flowers o' milk-white hue
In dazzling sheen!

* * * * *

'Or 'neath the tam'rind's shelt'ring gloom,
Drank coolness wafted in perfume,
Fresh frae the shaddack's golden bloom,
As flutt'ring gay
Humm'd soft the bird o' peerless plume,
Frae spray to spray!

* Stirling's.

'— Whether at eve, wi' raptur'd breast
The shelving palm-girt beach ye prest,
And eyed, entranced, the purpling west
Bepictured o'er,
As Ocean murm'ring gently kissed
The whitening shore.

'Whether at twilight's parting day
Ye held your solemn musing way,
Where through the gloom in myriad ray
The fire-flies gleam;
And 'thwart the grove in harmless play
The light'nings stream!

'Or, by the moon's bright radiance led,
Roam'd late the Guinea-verdured glade,
Where tower'd the giant ceiba's shade;
And, loftier still,
The cabbage rears its regal head
O'er palm-crowned hill.

'Still following close, still whisp'ring near
The Muse aye caught your list'ning ear;' &c.
Vol. ii. p. 138.

This very fine description of the West-Indian landscape has, we apprehend, all the merit of exactitude; and we doubt whether the scenery of the Caribbean islands was ever before depicted in so animated a strain of poetry.

In these wanderings we learn that the author's youth passed away, and that he at length returned to his favorite haunts, to 'Strevlin's heights' and 'Aichil brae.'

'Twas then the Muse taught him to tune his native reed;'—in other words, our poet then began to write in the Scottish dialect. It was put into his hand by the Muse,—

'Tween past'ral Tweed and wand'ring Ayr,
Where unbusk'd nature blooms so fair!
And many a wild note soft and clear
Sings sweet by turns,
Tuned by my winsome Allan's ear
And fav'rite Burns.' Vol. ii. p. 144.

On the delights which this new engagement produced, the Muse descants, and then proceeds—

'These times are gone!—ah! welladay!
For health has flown with spirits gay;
Youth too has fled! and cauld decay
Comes creeping on:
October's sun cheers not like May
That brightly shone!' Vol. ii. p. 145.

Various consolations are however offered through several affecting stanzas.

'Catch then the dream! nor count it vain,
Hope's dream's the sweetest balm o' pain:
Heav'n's unseen joys may yet remain,
And yet draw near ye:
Meanwhile, ye see, I hear your moan,
And flee to cheer ye.

* * * * *

'The flatterer ceased, and smiled adieu!
Just wav'd her hand, and mild withdrew.
Cheered with the picture (false or true)
I checked despair,
And frae that moment made a vow
To—mourn nae mair.' Vol. ii. p. 148.

The quotations we have given, and several of Mr. Macneill's other poems, particularly his ode to Grandeur, and his verses on the death of sir Ralph Abercrombie, show considerable strength and elevation of fancy. But tenderness, delicacy, and sensibility, are the most striking characteristics of his Muse. He is everywhere true to nature and passion, and touches with a skilful hand the finest chords of the heart. As a moral writer, he is without a stain—uniformly faithful to the cause of innocence and the interests of virtue. He appears to write under the frequent recurrence of pain and sickness. We should be happy if our plaudits could soothe his sufferings—happy if we could anticipate the voice of posterity, and breathe into the ear of the living poet those grateful accents with which future generations will hallow his dust!

ART. IX.—*A Tour through the Batavian Republic during the latter Part of the Year* 1800: *containing an Account of the Revolution and recent Events in that Country. By R. Fell.* 8*vo.* 8*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Phillips. 1801.

THE writer of these letters was taken prisoner by a French privateer near the coast of Yorkshire, and carried into Holland, where he obtained permission to make a tour through the country, and was thus enabled to collect accurate information respecting the state of the Batavian republic during the period of his residence in it. His observations are in general interesting, and communicated in an easy familiar manner. In the course of his tour, he visited Delft, Rotterdam, the Hague, Scheveling, the place whence the stadtholder embarked for England, Leyden, Haerlem, Amsterdam, Utrecht, and Nimeguen, traveling in *treckschuyts* the common conveyances of the country, and noting

down whatever was peculiarly striking in the manners of the Dutch, or had originated from the late revolution in their government. Few Englishmen seem to have a true idea of this revolution; and it is imagined by the majority, not only that the old constitution has been entirely subverted, but that every vestige of liberty has been utterly destroyed, and the Dutch been made the mere tools of Gallic despotism. This publication gives a very different representation; and the French, as a people, are said to be preferred by the inhabitants either to the English or to the family of the late stadtholder. Their old and genuine constitution had been destroyed by the Orange party before the troubles of France commenced. In consequence of those troubles and the war which followed, the exiled Dutch returned into their own country with stronger sentiments of aversion to the stadtholder and the aristocratic faction; the principles of democracy gained the ascendency, and the sovereignty of the people was acknowledged. Many individuals have suffered very much in their property: but the general manners of the people appear to have been little changed; and the return of peace, if it should be connected with their ancient love of accumulation, will soon recall a large portion of the treasures of the world to the bank of Amsterdam.

The most singular feature that has of late been exhibited in the country is the remarkable aversion entertained for the stadtholder and his family—a family which was once the pride of every Dutchman, and under whose auspices the most glorious struggles have been made in the great cause of liberty. It required a long course of years, and a particular line of conduct, to destroy the attachment to the house of Orange; but this retreat of its head from Holland, like that of our James II. from England, seems to have been fatal to its interests. For a considerable time the stadtholders—

'—had shed a lustre on the republic by their great abilities, which concealed their designs against the liberties of the people; but William V. inherited the ambition of his ancestors, without any pretensions to their splendid talents. His reign (if I may be permitted to use that term to denominate an authority almost regal) was marked by a succession of disasters, and closed with the conquest of his country and his precipitate flight. If a long train of circumstances, for which the stadtholder could not be blamed, had impaired the resources and weakened the energies of the republic, its fall was undoubtedly accelerated by the feeble and impolitic administration of that prince and his ministers. But the chief cause of his unpopularity, and of the extravagant joy that was displayed on his departure, was his attachment to the court of London. The Dutch had long viewed with bitter jealousy, on account of their own impoverished trade, the flourishing commerce of the British empire; and a mysterious connexion,

highly unfavourable to the republic, was supposed to exist between the stadtholder and the English government.

'It was reported (with what truth I cannot determine) and received with avidity, that the battle of the Dogger Bank, a combat honourable to the Dutch marine, was fought in disobedience to the orders of the admiral-general; and amongst other rumours then circulated and afterwards revived, it was said, that when the news of the battle arrived at the Hague, the stadtholder expressed his satisfaction that the English had not lost any ships. A naval officer, extremely well disposed to the new government, to whom in conversation I applied for information on the subject, assured me of his entire disbelief of either reports; and it is probable, had any evidence existed of orders given by the stadtholder to his admirals to avoid the English fleet, the directory would have published a fact so disgraceful to the prince of Orange.

'But if we reject, as originating in the malice of party, the story which accuses the stadtholder of absolutely betraying his country, and expressing a most unnatural joy at the success of its enemies, it is certain his partiality for England was so plainly manifested as to excite universal discontent, not only in the great commercial cities of the United Provinces, which regarded Great-Britain as the dangerous and insidious rival of their trade, but at the Hague and other places where the personal influence of the prince of Orange might be supposed to be considerable.

'These discontents, shortly after the restoration of peace, ripened into open insurrection, and the stadtholder would have been dismissed with ignominy from his government, had not Prussia and Great-Britain interfered for the preservation of his authority. The arms of one of these powers, and the threats of the other, maintained the prince of Orange in his offices, and even procured for him an accession of power. But his forcible re-establishment in the stadtholderate by the violent interference of foreign powers gave great offence to the moderate as well as to the republican party, and in proportion as the prince's authority was augmented the respect to his character was diminished. The zealous republicans, who with difficulty would have tolerated a stadtholder of the most profound talents, beheld with vivid indignation that high dignity, at a crisis which demanded consummate abilities, filled by a prince of a very limited capacity; and the notion was extensively circulated by the mischievous activity of party, that the calamities of the nation were to be attributed solely to the mal-administration of the prince.' P. 96.

'France is disgraced by the blood spilled in its civil contests. The triumph of the Orange party in 1788 was marked by the proscriptions of its enemies.

'It is most honourable to all who were concerned in the subversion of the ancient government of the United Provinces, a government which had subsisted two hundred years, respected in its foreign and domestic relations, and enjoying all the advantages of prescription and long establishment, that not one drop of human blood was judicially shed on its overthrow. I was at great pains to gather what

would probably have been the fate of the stadtholder and his family, had they awaited in Holland the storm that burst over their unfortunate house; and amidst a great diversity of opinions, the prevailing sentiment was, that they would have been banished from the territories of the republic. This opinion is corroborated by the knowledge of the influence which the king of Prussia, at that time negotiating with France, possessed in the councils of that republic; and he certainly would have averted, either by threats or force, any violence from being offered to the princess of Orange his sister, or her family. But undoubtedly, under the alarming circumstances in which they were placed, the wisest measure which the family of Orange could pursue was that which they adopted; for had they remained at the Hague till the arrival of the enemy, had their personal safeties not been endangered, they must have suffered many indignities, and been harassed with much anxiety and alarm.' P. 106.

The effects of the stoppage of the English bank are likely to be severely felt in future by British travelers.

'The exchange between Rotterdam and London on bills payable three days after sight is at the difference of the enormous sum of twelve *per cent.* in favour of the former city. This difference is not so much caused by the balance of trade, which is to the advantage of Rotterdam, as by the ideas which prevail on the continent of the financial embarrassments of the British nation, and the depreciation which the notes of the bank of England have undergone since that body has ceased to issue cash for their paper. Could I have given bills on Hamburgh I could have had cash for them almost at par; or could I have engaged that my drafts should be paid in London with specie, the difference in the exchange would have been considerably less. It is the opinion of very intelligent merchants at Rotterdam, that whenever peace is restored to Europe, should the bank of England not resume paying its notes in cash, the exchange with London will be still more unfavourable to that city; for then, in every commercial sense, the bank must be accounted insolvent, and its paper of no more value than French assignats.' P. 146.

The stoppage of the bank of England is an important æra in the history of banking; and the fate of the bank of Amsterdam must be an object of general curiosity to the commercial world. The account given of it in this work seems to have been the result of accurate information, and affords matter for much serious reflexion.

'A few years ago the bank of Amsterdam was supposed to contain the greatest quantity of accumulated treasures in the world. It was accounted the store-house of Europe for the precious metals: and various estimates have been formed of its wealth, from the incredible sum of forty millions sterling, to the equally suspicious estimate of three hundred thousand pounds. The bank of Amsterdam was a bank of deposit, and the credit on its books was thought to be rigorously proportioned with the treasures in its coffers. This was indeed the spirit of the institution; for though the vulgar idea

was unfounded, that no money once deposited in this bank could ever afterwards be withdrawn, it invariably professed to keep in its repositories a quantity of money or bullion equal to the sums for which credit was given on its books. In 1672, when the forces of Lewis XIV. almost thundered at the gates of Amsterdam, and the republic was filled with consternation, all demands on the bank were honourably and instantaneously discharged, and the proofs of its solvency ostentatiously displayed.

'From that period, till again in 1795 the armies of France hovered on the frontier of the republic, the bank of Amsterdam enjoyed an almost uninterrupted course of commercial confidence. The magistrates of various parties, to whose integrity the direction of the bank was successively intrusted, never accused their predecessors of any improper use of its treasures; and therefore, though some suspicions were entertained and propagated that the bank occasionally accommodated the government with specie, these suspicions, being discountenanced by the persons possessed of the best information on the subject, were disregarded as the effects of party malice. It was also a kind of commercial heresy to doubt the stability of the bank of Amsterdam; and therefore all rumours to its disadvantage were not only received by the mercantile world with coldness, but repressed with acrimony.

'The arrival of the French in Amsterdam, and the establishment of the patriotic party in power, at length produced a complete investigation of the affairs of the bank. It appeared from the official report, published by order of the provisional representatives of Amsterdam, on this subject, that for the last fifty years the bank had occasionally advanced on bond to the India company, under guarantee of the city of Amsterdam, various sums, amounting on the whole to upwards of six million florins. In a similar way the provinces of Holland and West Friesland were indebted to the bank nearly a million florins. The loan-office of Amsterdam had contracted with the bank a debt of one million seven hundred and fifty thousand florins, and the city was otherwise in arrears with the bank upwards of four hundred thousand florins—the whole amounting to upwards of nine million florins, or rather more than eight hundred thousand pounds sterling. For the whole of this sum there had originally been investments of cash or bullion in the bank; to remove one florin of which, by way of loan, was a violation of the compact between the bank and its creditors. But if the money so disposed of, instead of being hoarded up in the coffers of the bank, in a duplicate ratio increased the circulating medium of the country, efficiently by the cash so issued from the strong chests of the bank, and virtually by the credit which it possessed from the imaginary treasure lodged in it, giving confidence and activity to commerce, and facilitating all the operations of trade, in a mercantile point of view, the conduct of the directors, in thus departing from the letter of their establishment, was to be applauded rather than condemned.

'The merchants of Amsterdam, however, thought otherwise. This deficiency in the sacred deposits of the bank excited the most vivid indignation against all who had been concerned in the manage-

ment of that institution, and the spirit of party tended to keep alive and heighten the flames of commercial resentment.

'The money thus taken from the coffers of the bank could at no time have been claimed by its creditors, being an accumulation of treasure for which the receipts were expired, by which alone payment could be demanded. The nature of these receipts, by which alone cash could be drawn from the bank of Amsterdam, may be briefly explained. When a person deposited cash or bullion in the bank, he obtained credit in its books for the sum which he so invested, and a receipt, by which, within the period of six months, after cancelling the credit that he had obtained, he could draw his cash or bullion from the bank. These receipts were renewable on payment of a small per centage to the bank, as warehouse rent for the cash lodged in it. If they were permitted to expire, the money or bullion for which they were granted could not be withdrawn from the bank, but the person who had so invested it possessed an equivalent bank credit; which, however, he could convert into cash, by purchasing a receipt for the sum that he wanted in the stock-market, where they were generally to be sold.

'Of the cash and bullion which had fallen to the bank, or rather was become or ought to have been locked up in it, from the expiration of these receipts, not a single florin remained; and the amount of this mighty and boasted treasure, had it been carefully stored in the vaults and caves of the bank, would not have reached the sum of one million sterling.' P. 293.

This vacuum in the treasure of the bank might have led to very serious consequences; but, with admirable prudence, the provisional representatives of Amsterdam prevented the effusion of blood. The affairs of the East and West-India companies were examined—the holders of bank credit were informed that they were at liberty to withdraw their money whenever they thought proper—the bank was recalled to its original institution; and, in giving a full account of its resources, the representatives declare, that 'they desire by no means to be considered as approving of or confirming the use that may have been made of the deposits of the bank, and much less of discharging by any thing in this proclamation those who may be reprehensible on that subject.'

Among ourselves, Holland is considered as completely ruined; among the Dutch the same opinion is entertained of England; and though the general loss sustained by the former country, from the demands of the French, cannot be estimated at much less than 40 *per cent.* on its whole capital, it was urged by a Dutch merchant, and 'with great plausibility, that England had suffered an equal, if not a more serious diminution of its capital, from the enormous debt incurred by the war, and the profligate expenditure of its ministers.'

'No opinion prevails in Holland more generally than that, whenever peace is restored to Europe, a national bankruptcy will take

place in Great-Britain; and this persuasion is so firmly established, that many of the Dutch who have property in the English funds account it of no more value than their French assignats.' P. 352.

From the extracts we have given, our readers will form a favorable judgement of the talents of the writer, whose description of the mode of traveling, the principal towns, and the peculiar manners of the inhabitants, affords a considerable fund of information and entertainment. The Dutch character is presented in a more amiable point of view than we have lately, from political prejudices, been accustomed to contemplate it; and as the return of peace promises to re-establish the accustomed intercourse between the two countries, the merchant and the traveler will equally find their interest concerned in consulting this publication. Reflecting upon the ancient virtues of the Batavian character, we were happy to find that the present generation is by no means lost to the world. The insinuations of many party writers are herein corrected by more authentic statements; and a more charitable opinion of our neighbours is very strenuously inculcated.

'Whatever changes the revolution may have produced in the manners and habits of the Dutch, I am persuaded that there remains in the nation a rich fund of *old* Batavian virtue, integrity, and honour; that the genuine principles of liberty are no-where better understood, or more fervently admired, though, by the unhappy circumstances of the times, perverted or neglected; that no-where are the domestic and social duties of life more sedulously cultivated.—May the exercise of these virtues speedily be encouraged by the restoration of peace!' P. 378.

ART. X.—*An Historical Tour in Monmouthshire, &c. By William Coxe. Part II.* *(Continued from Vol. XXXIII. p. 251.)*

WE left our interesting traveler in the north-west of this romantic and pleasing country, in that angle which looks on the right into Herefordshire, and on the left into Brecknockshire. He makes many excursions towards different objects on the east and west, before he returns to Abergavenny, whence he visits the iron works at Blaenavon, and proceeds to Pont-y-Pool. The whole of this tour is replete with objects which highly interest the reader. We shall point out only the more prominent features of the journey, or those which to us were most engaging.

Lanthony abbey has employed the pencil of sir Richard Hoare, who has given many different views of it. The situation is in the romantic vale of Ewias, a retreat wild and isolated, but tranquil and soothing. Among our author's other

excursions around this neighbourhood, he proceeds to Oldcastle, the seat of the dissolute companion of our Henry V., and who was probably the prototype of Falstaff. Oldcastle died a martyr; so that Shakspeare was obliged to deny the identity of his fat knight with one whose catastrophe was so unsuitable to his profligacy and cowardice. The castle is pulled down, and the farm-house more profitably occupies its place. The general description of the country we shall copy from our author's account of the prospect from the Gaer.

'The Gaer occupying nearly the centre of the great chain which stretches to the north and north-west from Abergavenny, beyond the confines of Herefordshire and Brecknockshire, the situations and forms of the circumjacent mountains are plainly distinguished from its summit. The first of this chain is the Derry, which I have already described as rising from Abergavenny, and which skirts the Hereford road for the space of two miles; the northern side appears sprinkled with underwood, and the summit is crowned by the Sugar Loaf in all its beauty. To the north of the Derry succeeds a bare russet mountain of an oblong form, called the Brynaro, which turns at the scathed elm on the Hereford road, and terminates at the foot of the Gaer. Opposite to the Brynaro, on the eastern side of the Hereford road, rises the Great Skyrrid, in all its ruggedness, with its forked summit eminently conspicuous. To the north of the Brynaro, and to the north-east of the Skyrrid, extends the long line of the Black mountains, separated from the Gaer by the valley of the Honddy, a dark and gloomy mass, sweeping in a semicircular direction, and spreading in various ramifications. In their inmost recesses appears the deep vale of Ewias, and the singular curvature of the dingle, which takes the name of Cwmyoi from its shape, and communicates it to the village, whose romantic situation in the midst of broken crags is peculiarly striking. To the west of the Black mountains, and to the north-west of the Gaer, rises a succession of eminences, bristling with crags innumerable, stretching across Brecknockshire, and lost in the distant counties of Wales. At the foot of the Gaer, I admired the beautiful vale of Langruny, watered by a lively torrent, and terminating at the north-western extremity of the Derry, from which point the Lanwenarth hills border the vale of the Usk, and join the Rolben.

'Beyond this chain of mountains, which I have thus attempted to discriminate, the eye of the spectator glances over the fertile parts of Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, backed by the distant hills in the counties of Worcester, Glocester, and Somerset, and intersected by the æstuary of the Severn.' P. 224.

The iron works at Blaenavon are extensive and important. The mines were formerly worked while the neighbouring hills could afford wood for charcoal, but neglected when the forests were destroyed. After it was discovered that pig-iron might be manufactured with coak—charred pit-coal—the works were resumed, as lodes of iron are covered with those of coal.

The ore is sufficiently rich, yielding forty-four pounds of pig-iron in one hundred weight, and the works are carried on with equal judgement and spirit. Fifteen years ago not more than sixty tons of pig-iron were annually manufactured in this county and the contiguous district of Glamorganshire, and no bar-iron attempted: at present the former scarcely falls short of six hundred, and the latter amounts to three hundred tons. The buildings and the rail-road are particularly described; but for these we must refer to the volume, as the accounts would lead us too far.

Pont-y-Pool is a corruption of Pont-ap-Howell, Howell's-bridge; and the place is well known from the manufacture of varnished iron plates bearing its name. This invention is attributed to an agent of Mr. Hanbury, Mr. Thomas Allgood; but the manufacture has decayed in consequence of other establishments, and somewhat from the fluctuations of fashion. Some of the neglect probably arises from the decay of the tinning on the inside, corroded by the iron, which after a little time gives an unpleasing as well as a dirty appearance. The family of Hanbury forms too conspicuous a feature in the picture to be overlooked, and a pretty full account is added of them, particularly of sir Charles Hanbury Williams, so memorable in the annals of gallantry—rather perhaps of libertinism—and politics. The history of this gentleman is resumed in the twenty-ninth chapter, and some important memoirs are added from the family papers. His private life is well known, from the annals of wit and gallantry of the day. His Ode to Mr. Fox, on the marriage of Mr. Hussey with the duchess of Manchester, contained a severe and illiberal satire on the whole Irish nation; and several Irish gentlemen were said to have entered into a combination to affront or to challenge him. The advice of his friends (and a very friendly letter from Mr. Fox is added, from the Pont-y-Pool papers, on this subject) induced him to retire to Monmouthshire. He accepted the embassy to Dresden in 1746; so that the resentment excited by this indiscretion must have long passed away: and the reason which he assigns for accepting the office, viz. melancholy, in consequence of the death of his friend Mr. Winnington, is a more probable one than that commonly imputed to him, to wit, cowardice.

From Pont-y-Pool Mr. Coxe makes an excursion to the west, to the mountainous country watered by the Avon Lwyd, the Ebwy, the Sorwy, and the Rumney rivers, which, rising from the high grounds in the north-west of Monmouthshire, and the south of Brecknockshire, pass southward in an almost parallel direction towards the Bristol Channel, but, slightly converging, empty themselves into the Usk, which falls into the sea at no great distance from the Rumney. This part of the

country is very little known; and the excursion was undertaken at the persuasion of Mr. Evans, who informed our author that he would find some Swiss scenes in these 'wilds.' He seems not to have been disappointed. We shall select a passage from these unfrequented regions.

'At the extremity of this moor we approached the descent leading to Cwm Tilery, and I was surprised with the view of an extensive district well peopled, richly wooded, and highly cultivated, almost rivalling the fertile counties of England. Slowly descending from the dreary heath, we looked down with delight upon numerous valleys which abound with romantic scenery, and passed several rills bubbling from the sides of the hill, and swelling the Tilery; beneath us at a distance we distinguished the Little Ebwy, bursting through a deep, narrow, and woody glen, and only visible by its foam glistening through the thick foliage.

'At the bottom of the descent we crossed the Little Ebwy over a stone bridge, and rode along a narrow and rugged path, winding round the precipitous sides of the Beacon mountain, which are thickly clothed with underwood, and occasionally tufted with hanging groves of oak, beech, ash, and alder; the wild raspberry twining in the thickets, and the ground overspread with the wood strawberry. The rapid torrent beneath was sometimes half obscured by the trees, and sometimes re-appeared to view, as it bounded over its rocky channel, illumined by the rays of a mid-day sun.

'This valley is usually called, from the torrent, Ebwy vach, or the vale of the Little Ebwy, but is denominated by the natives, the Valley of the Church: it is bounded on the east by a ridge called Milvre Hill, which separates it from the parishes of Lanfoist and Trevethin, and on the west by the Beacon mountain, which divides it from the valley of the Great Ebwy. At first it was extremely narrow, almost without a single habitation; the foaming torrent filling the whole space between the mountains. As we proceeded the vale expanded, and numerous farm-houses, with small inclosures of corn and pasture, occupied the slopes of the eminences, and spread into the narrow plain on each side of the river; the whitened walls and brown stone roofs of these detached dwellings gave an air of neatness and gaiety to the surrounding landscape.

'Towards the extremity of the vale, we crossed the Little Ebwy, over another stone bridge, to the church, which is beautifully situated in the midst of fields, upon a gentle rise overhanging the torrent. In our way we passed the Istwyth, a lively rill, which descends from a wooded dingle, and in a few paces falls into the Little Ebwy: this stream gives the name of Aberystwith to the scattered village, which is likewise called Blaenau Gwent, or the extremity of Gwentland.' P. 246.

The simple construction of the churches, one very simple and beautiful epitaph, and the still remaining belief in goblins, elfs, and fiends, form very pleasing contrasts to some of the other parts of the work.

The next excursion was to the south-west, to Crumlin-bridge and Risca, where our author nearly falls in with his former journey in the vicinity of Machen. In this part of the tour, though it be in general pleasing, we find nothing so peculiarly striking as to induce us to dwell on it. The neatness and simplicity of the habitations, the comforts of the peasantry, their bacon, almost, as in other alpine regions in England, their only food, and their national liquor, the *cwrw*, thick unfermented beer, afford a pleasing picture of an early state of civilisation; yet perhaps chiefly pleasing when viewed at a distance. The road to Abergavenny, though not without its attractions, offers however nothing sufficiently interesting to detain us.

We find nothing which requires our notice till the author's arrival at Monmouth, which he reached by the upper road, through Landeilo Cresseney. The capital of Monmouthshire contains about six hundred houses, and about two thousand six hundred souls. The average number of births is between seventy and eighty; of burials seventy—about one in thirty-seven. There is but little manufacture in this town, for the Monmouth caps are now disused; but the situation on the Monnow and the Wye is delightful, and perhaps Monmouth is one of the most pleasing and romantic towns in the island. Its history is added, but without any particular subject which can long detain us. Its claim to the honor of a Roman station is not decided; but it was certainly fortified at a very early period, perhaps by the Saxons.

In the neighbourhood of Monmouth various branches of the Herbert family are established; and before Mr. Coxe leaves this part of the country, he visits Perthîr, Troy-house, Treowen, and Wonastow. The following anecdote is highly characteristic and entertaining.

'Mr. Lorimer pointed out to me a window remarkable for a curious anecdote relating to the contest for precedence between the rival houses of Perthîr and Werndee, which, though less bloody, was not less obstinate, than that between the houses of York and Lancaster. Mr. Proger dining with a friend at Monmouth, proposed riding to Werndee in the evening, but his friend objecting, because it was late and likely to rain, Mr. Proger replied, "With regard to the lateness of the hour, we shall have moonlight; and should it happen to rain, Perthîr is not far from the road, and my cousin Powell will, I am very sure, give us a night's lodging." They accordingly mounted their horses; but being soon overtaken by a violent shower, rode to Perthîr, and found all the family retired to rest. Mr. Proger, however, calling to his cousin, Mr. Powell opened the window, and looking out, asked, "In the name of wonder, what means all this noise? Who is there?" "It is only I, your cousin Proger of Werndee, who am come to your hospitable door for shelter from the inclemency of the weather, and hope you will be so

kind as to give me and my friend a lodging?" "What is it you, cousin Proger? You and your friend shall be instantly admitted, but upon one condition, that you will allow, and never hereafter dispute, that I am the head of the family." "What did you say?" returned Mr. Proger. "Why I say, if you expect to pass the night in my house, you must allow that I am the head of the family." "No, sir, I never would admit that; were it to rain swords and daggers, I would ride this night to Werndee, rather than lower the consequence of my family. Come up, Bald, come up." "Stop a moment, cousin Proger, have you not often confessed that the first earl of Pembroke (of the name of Herbert) was the youngest son of Perthîr, and will you set yourself above the earls of Pembroke?" "True; I must give place to the earl of Pembroke, because he is a peer of the realm; but still, though a peer, he is of the youngest branch of my family, being descended from the fourth son of Werndee, who was your ancestor, and settled at Perthîr; whereas I am descended from the eldest son. Indeed my cousin Jones of Lanarth is of an older branch than you, and yet he never disputes that I am the head of the family." "Why cousin Proger, I have nothing more to say; so good night to you." "Stop a moment, Mr. Powell," said the stranger; "you see how it pours, do admit me at least; I will not dispute with you about our families." "Pray, sir, what is your name, and where do you come from?" "My name is * * *, and I come from the county of * * *." "A Saxon of course: it would be very curious indeed, sir, should I dispute with a Saxon about families; no, sir, you must suffer for the obstinacy of your friend, and so a pleasant ride to you both." P. 316.

The three stones called 'druidical'—some rude British remains, or rather probably a relic of a later æra, as they are formed of a pudding-stone, which is seldom very durable—and the chalybeate waters, both in the neighbourhood of Trelech, are not peculiarly interesting. This town lay in our author's route from Monmouth to Chepstow.

White-castle, Scenfreth, and Grosmont, once 'ingulfed in the immense possessions of the house of Lancaster,' are now included in one hundred, called the hundred of the three castles, and, of course, are described in the same chapter. These castles are situated in the north-east of the county, bordering on Herefordshire to the north of Landeilo Cresseney, which lies between Monmouth and Abergavenny. The history of these castles is not of great importance. John of Kent, once an inhabitant of this district, and a reputed sorcerer, is said to have done much good service, by means of Satan, whom he at last outwitted. He seems to have been a monk of superior learning and knowledge. We remember, in our own time, to have heard various provincial legends of the *Oxford scholars*, who were then reputed to be conjurers. The subject of the thirty-fifth chapter is the navigation of the Wye, from Ross to Monmouth; though, strictly speaking, a part of the journey from

Ross to Monmouth is in Herefordshire. The Wye is very serpentine in its course, so that the distance from Ross to Chepstow, which is only sixteen miles and a half, becomes, in consequence of the circuitous navigation of the river, little short of thirty-eight miles.

The navigation of the Wye has been often described, and we need not extract any part of a subject already so well known. If we select any thing, it shall be what has not been before remarked, or what is here placed in a new light. Nothing of this kind occurs in the navigation from Ross to Monmouth. From the capital to Tintern-abbey, the description is more interesting, as it contains an account of the abbey, illustrated as usual, by sir Richard Hoare's characteristic pencil.

'After passing a miserable row of cottages, and forcing our way through a crowd of importunate beggars, we stopped to examine the rich architecture of the west front; but the door being suddenly opened, the inside perspective of the church called forth an instantaneous burst of admiration, and filled me with delight, such as I scarcely ever before experienced on a similar occasion. The eye passes rapidly along a range of elegant gothic pillars, and, glancing under the sublime arches which supported the tower, fixes itself on the splendid relics of the eastern window, the grand termination of the choir.

'From the length of the nave, the height of the walls, the aspiring form of the pointed arches, and the size of the east window, which closes the perspective, the first impressions are those of grandeur and sublimity. But as these emotions subside, and we descend from the contemplation of the whole to the examination of the parts, we are no less struck with the regularity of the plan, the lightness of the architecture, and the delicacy of the ornaments; we feel that elegance is its characteristic no less than grandeur, and that the whole is a combination of the beautiful and the sublime.

'This church was constructed in the shape of a cathedral, and is an excellent specimen of gothic architecture in its greatest purity. The roof is fallen in, and the whole ruin open to the sky, but the shell is entire; all the pillars are standing, except those which divided the nave from the northern aisle, and their situation is marked by the remains of the bases. The four lofty arches which supported the tower spring high in the air, reduced to narrow rims of stone, yet still preserving their original form. The arches and pillars of the choir and transept are complete; the shapes of all the windows may be still discriminated, and the frame of the west window is in perfect preservation; the design of the tracery is extremely elegant, and, when decorated with painted glass, must have produced a fine effect. Critics who censure this window as too broad or its height, do not consider that it was not intended for a particular object, but to harmonise with the general plan; and had the architect diminished the breadth in proportion to the height, the grand effect of the perspective would have been considerably lessened.

'The general form of the east window is entire, but the frame is much dilapidated; it occupies the whole breadth of the choir, and is divided into two large and equal compartments, by a slender shaft not less than fifty feet in height, which has an appearance of singular lightness, and, in particular points of view, seems suspended in the air.

'Nature has added her ornaments to the decorations of art; some of the windows are wholly obscured, others partially shaded with tufts of ivy, or edged with lighter foliage; the tendrils creep along the walls, wind round the pillars, wreath the capitals, or, hanging down in clusters, obscure the space beneath.

'Instead of dilapidated fragments overspread with weeds and choked with brambles, the floor is covered with a smooth turf, which, by keeping the original level of the church, exhibits the beauty of its proportions, heightens the effect of the grey stone, gives a relief to the clustered pillars, and affords an easy access to every part. Ornamented fragments of the roof, remains of cornices and columns, rich pieces of sculpture, sepulchral stones and mutilated figures of monks and heroes whose ashes repose within these walls, are scattered on the greensward, and contrast present desolation with former splendor.' P. 352.

The Wye assumes a less sinuous course, and the bordering cliffs are less mountainous, till the traveler arrives in the neighbourhood of Piercefield, where the cliffs become bolder, and the sweeps of the river round their base more singularly striking and picturesque. Chepstow-castle crowns the whole.

The town of Chepstow is situated in a spot singularly beautiful and romantic; but it has been often described, as well as its bridge. The tide is said to rise to an extraordinary height: but, in reality, within the memory of man it has not been found greatly to exceed fifty-six feet, which, though considerable, is not unexampled. The amount of the shipping probably exceeds 3500 tons, for it was so much in 1799; but, including repeated voyages, 1200 vessels annually enter and clear the port. The exports are timber, grain, iron, coal, &c. including paper and cider. The imports are what is required for interior consumption and ship-building (timber excepted). In times of peace the foreign trade is said to be considerable.

The castle of Chepstow is described, with a short history of its various proprietors, together with an account of the famous regicide, Harry Marten. It appears that his republican opinions were formed very early, long before the temper of the times permitted their promulgation, and that he died in the same sentiments.

The last chapter of this work relates to Piercefield, the creation of the famous Valentine Morris, many anecdotes of whom are related, and who finished a varied scene in poverty, after a confinement of seven years in the king's-bench. From the aggravated calamities which befel him—for generosity, care-

lessness, and imprudence, were only conspicuous at one period of his life, viz. during his residence at Piercefield—he became insane. His books, and the little gleanings of Mrs. Morris's toilet, had been sold to procure bread! Piercefield has been often described—we will prefer looking at Mr. Morris's benevolence, and conclude our account of this work with an anecdote of a man who deserved a better fate.

'The inhabitants of Chepstow idolise his memory, and relate numerous instances of his benevolence with a warmth of affection which borders on enthusiasm; among others, one which does honour to his feelings should not be omitted.

'Holding one day a conversation with Mr. Knowles, whom he employed in building the alcove, and from whom I received the anecdote, he made inquiries concerning the family of Walters, and asked if any of them were yet living. Knowles replied, that William, the brother of John who sold the estate, was still alive and in great distress. "Bring him to Piercefield," said Morris, "and I will make him welcome." "If you would give him your whole estate he could not walk, he is so much afflicted with the gout in his feet, and earns a precarious livelihood by fishing." "If he cannot then come to me, I will take the first opportunity of calling on him."

'Being some time afterwards engaged with Knowles in forming an opening in the wood, he saw two men in a boat:—"Stay here," he said to Knowles; "I will cross the river in that boat, and examine whether the objects I want to show can be seen from hence." Descending hastily, he hailed the watermen, leaped into the boat, was ferried over, and on his return entered into conversation with the men, and inquired their names and condition. "My name," said one of them, "is *****; I am a native of Chepstow; and that man," pointing to his companion, "is William Walters."—"What, Walters of Piercefield?" exclaimed Morris. "Yes, please your honour, I am the brother of John who sold the estate which you now enjoy." Morris made no reply; but giving a gratuity to each of the men, leaped on shore, rapidly ascended the hill, and rejoining Knowles, cried, "I have been talking with Walters;" taking out several guineas, he added,—"carry these to him, and tell him that he shall never want while it is in my power to assist him." Knowles suggested, that as the man was much addicted to liquor, he would render him more service by a weekly allowance. The next market day one of Morris's servants carried to Walters a joint of meat, and a small sum of money, which were continued weekly until his death. Morris defrayed the expenses of his funeral, and his carriage conveyed the corpse to St. Arvan's, where it was interred in the family vault.' P. 396.

We have noticed very few of the ornaments of this work; and it would greatly lengthen our article to give even a list of the engravings and plans. They are very numerous, and finished more uniformly than we usually find in similar works. To praise the drawings of sir Richard Hoare would be super-

fluous. These are executed with peculiar taste and elegance. The views are fifty-five in number; to which are added eleven portraits, seven plans of towns, sixteen ground-plans of ancient castles and encampments. The views only, we believe, were drawn by sir Richard Hoare.

Besides additions to some of the articles, the appendix contains—

'No. 1. Letter from Mr. Owen, author of the Welsh and English Dictionary; containing remarks on the structure of the Welsh language, and on the characteristics of the Gwentian dialect; accompanied with two odes.

'No. 2. A paper on the ancient limits of Morgannoc, or Siluria; extracted from the Myvirian Archæology of Wales, vol. 2.

'No. 3. Account of the encampments of Coed y Caerau, Kemeys Folly, Caerlicyn, Gaer Vawr, and Cwrt y Gaer. Addition to Chapter 5.

'No. 4. Abstract of the charter of Newport in the county of Monmouth; referred to in p. 46. Amount of tonnage on the Monmouthshire canal, for one year, commencing September 9, 1798.

'No. 5. Constitution of the court of sewers, in the level of Wentloog; referred to in chapter 9. Communicated by the Rev. Mr. Evans.

'No. 7. Dissertation on the inscription engraven on a brass plate in the church of Usk, referred to in p. 133; containing explanations by Dr. Wooton, the Rev. Mr. Evans, vicar of St. Woolos, and a letter on the same subject from Mr. Owen.

'No. 8. A true coppie of an antient memorable treatise of record touchinge the progenie & descent of the honourable name and family of the Herberts, by commission from E. 4. an° Dom. 1460; referred to in p. 141.

'No. 13. Translation of a grant in the church chest of Lantilio, or Landeilo Bertholly, Monmouthshire; referred to in p. 205.

'No. 14. Additions to chapter 30.—Fac-simile of the seal of the abbey of Grace Dieu, mentioned in p. 289.—Account of Caeluch.

'No. 16. Papers relative to the trade of Chepstow, referred to in p. 360.

'No. 17. Omission in chapter 40, concerning the genealogy and arms of the Wood family, p. 397.'

Some antiquities lately discovered at Caerleon are added.

In the first number of the appendix, the remarks on the Welsh language, though short, are very interesting; and the two odes are wild and pleasing. We might have enlarged on these and the second number of this appendix, if the Welsh Archæology had not been published.

The subject will however re-attract our attention in its proper place.

The fifth number contains some judicious remarks on the common etymology of Caerleon. The latter part of the word is supposed to denote the station of a Roman legion, and *leon*

to be a corruption of the term *legion*. The objections we shall transcribe.

'The facts which I am about to state in evidence are these: In the first place, the Welsh term used for a *legion* is *lleng*, a very common word in all the writings of the different ages; therefore, if the foregoing derivation were true, the name of the town would have been *Caer Lleng*; and which a critic, nay every body who knows the Welsh language, can point out to be very different in structure from *Caer Llëon*, a word of three syllables. The next fact is, that the proper name of the town is *Caer Llion*, and not *Caer Llëon*; and it is always found so in our most ancient manuscripts. The meaning of *caer* is already well known to be any inclosure of defence, or fortification, and in a secondary sense a city.

'I shall proceed to state, as a third fact, the import of *llion* to be, streams, torrents, or floodings—a term often used, in an aggregate sense, for any great body of water; and it is derived from *lli*, which is the singular form of the word, implying a stream or flood, in its popular acceptation. The last fact to be adduced is, the great propriety of the name for the situation of the town on the banks of the river Usk; and probably the situation is, or was formerly, on the extremity of the range of the tides; thus rendering the plural form of the appellation still more descriptive, than if it were only (as it frequently has been used) on account of the vicinity of the river Usk to the town. As to the last-mentioned circumstance you are fully enabled to judge for yourself, which renders it needless for any remarks of mine; and as I have laid down the leading points, which make me dissent from the commonly-received etymology of *Caerlleon*, I commit them in this brief way to your judgement, to draw such an inference as may seem consistent with reason.' P. 417.

The population of Abergavenny is said to exceed two thousand souls. The other numbers of the appendix do not admit of an abstract, or require a more particular notice.

ART. XI.—*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. For the Year* 1801. *Part II.* 17*s.* 6*d. sewed.* 4*to.* Payne.

'XII. A HISTORICAL and Anatomical Description of a doubtful amphibious animal of Germany, called by Laurenti, Proteus Anguinus. By Charles Schreibers, M.D. of Vienna. Communicated by the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K.B. P.R.S.'

Dr. Schreibers seems greatly inclined to consider this animal as a perfect one, since, as he observes, there is none found in the lakes of Carniola of which it can be the larva. Naturalists well know that fishes and reptiles are distinguished as they breathe by gills or by lungs. Many years since an animal was found which had both these organs of respiration; and Linnæus

formed a new order for its reception. Many similar ones have been since discovered: yet, as the first is probably only the larva of a more perfect animal, doubts have arisen respecting the rest. The siren lacertina is consequently removed to fishes under the genus *murœna*, and no naturalist has yet dared to re-establish the new order. Scopoli undoubtedly thought it a peculiar genus (*genus singulare*, Ann. Hist. Natur. quintus, p. 74, 75), and Laurenti conceived the same. Linnæus saw only a *drawing* of it, and did not 'hesitate.' He at once decided it to be the larva of a lizard. Hermann and Schneider have adopted the same opinion, and we shall add our own reasons for following them. It must be indeed admitted that every argument on this side should be received with caution, for nature is progressive by gradual shades; and it is, *a priori*, more probable that animals should have been formed with both gills and lungs, than that there should be a chasm of such extent. The great question however must be, whether the present animal be of this kind?

We think it an imperfect one, because of its regular periodical appearance; and, though the size varies, this must be the case with larvæ of every kind, whose growth is progressive, before their change takes place. At this period too they are usually very voracious, and the proteus anguinus is remarkably so. Another discrimination of an early period is the size of the liver; to which we may add the absence of the organs of generation; for though Dr. Schreibers have described two bladders, which he calls ovaries, there is no reason assigned for considering them as such. His great argument is, that no animal is found in these lakes of which it can be the larva. This however is far from conclusive. Perfect animals are often very distant in form and appearance from larvæ. He himself allows that all the lakes of Carniola communicate by subterraneous passages; and the more perfect animal may reside in the deepest parts, where it is less subject to storms, or be strong enough to resist their power. The anatomical description is curious; and in the specimens which our author examined he discovered eyes, which were formerly supposed to be wanting. The organ however only exists. We do not know that the animal has the sensation of sight.

'XIII. Observations tending to investigate the Nature of the Sun, in order to find the Causes or Symptoms of its variable Emission of Light and Heat; with Remarks on the Use that may possibly be drawn from Solar Observations. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S.'

'XVI. Additional Observations tending to investigate the Symptoms of the variable Emission of the Light and Heat of the Sun; with Trials to set aside darkening Glasses, by transmitting the Solar Rays through Liquids; and a few Remarks

to remove Objections that might be made against some of the Arguments contained in the former Paper. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S.'

These, like the rest of Mr. Herschel's papers, are *curious*—we had almost said *singular*; and in these, perhaps, he has more freely indulged his imagination than in any former ones. We do not object to an hypothesis to illustrate facts, nor indeed as a standard to which they may be brought to ascertain the truth or falsehood of the system; and Mr. Herschel scarcely aims at more, though he carries his illustrations somewhat farther than facts will support him.

The various modifications of the sun's light are distinguished into 'openings, shallows, ridges, nodules, corrugations, indentations, and pores.' It is enough for us to remark, that the sun's light is either defective or in excess. The two first are of the former kind, differing in degree; and the two last are similar, but limited in extent, and differing a little in form. The third, fourth, and fifth, are of the latter class, and the forms are sufficiently discriminated by the appellations. We must detail the author's system in a synthetic form.

In some prior papers, Mr. Herschel has advanced the opinion, that the sun is an opaque body of a planetary nature, admitting of habitation, and probably inhabited. The luminous matter he supposes to be separated from the body, and the light evolved in the higher regions of its atmosphere. The sun, he thinks, has an atmosphere more dense than ours, in consequence of the increased gravitation towards so vast a mass. This atmosphere, whose density is augmented by clouds, is illuminated and seen, by us, in the shallows, from the reflected rays, while we perceive the body of the orb itself in the 'openings' or 'spots.' There must be a cause then which separates the atmospheric clouds and the luminous fluid above, so as to discover the substance of the planet. This cause, if we rightly understand our author, is the emission of an elastic gas from the sun itself, from which the luminous matter is derived, while the power of this gas is not sufficient, when emitted with less force, to separate the clouds and render the body of the sun visible. Thus spots are connected with the ridges, &c. and the apparent want of light is the means of its accumulation. Ridges, nodules, and corrugations, are consequently the marks of accumulated light, and originally derived from the sun, through the vacuities called spots. On examination with the photometer, the surface of the atmosphere reflected 469 rays, and the body of the sun 7 only, when the luminous surface gave 1000.

When we speak of the sun's atmosphere below the luminous fluid, we must be supposed to mean the region of clouds; for our author thinks there may be a clear atmosphere far above

the body of the sun, to the extent of some hundreds of miles; and, in reality, we must be supposed to view the body of the sun only through its atmosphere, which our author thinks to be transparent.

We have not given Mr. Herschel's system in his own words, because we have been able to compact it better, and to separate it from the observations. To those, however, who wish to examine it critically, we would recommend the paper itself. We must add, that the author suspects the sun to be less perfectly luminous on one side than on the other; so that to an observer in another system he would appear to be a star, having periodical variations of light.

All this, it may be said, is hypothetical:—it is indeed so; but it quadrates well with the appearances, and may rest as an hypothesis till other observations confirm or destroy it. Mr. Herschel however builds on it a superstructure, perhaps more hypothetical still. We have remarked that the accumulated light of the sun, according to our author, is connected with its spots, as the channels through which the matter affording light is derived; and that therefore, from the previous spots, fertile seasons may be predicted. He endeavours to establish this by evidence which we think very vague, viz. the average price of wheat in periods subsequent to those distinguished by numerous spots—the causes of and accumulations of light. He seems to think, that when spots have preceded, the seasons have been more genial and fertile. The evidence for this opinion must however be necessarily inconclusive and unsatisfactory. He speaks of proving it also by the meteorological register of the Royal Society, and he *will* prove it in this way; for the morning observation is, as we have often observed, affected by the sun's rays, and consequently the highest degree is too great. What then arises from the sun will easily appear to be owing to it. If he adopt the afternoon heat, he will be nearer the truth.

'XXI. A Continuation of the Experiments and Observations on the Light which is spontaneously emitted from various Bodies; with some Experiments and Observations on Solar Light, when imbibed by Canton's Phosphorus. By Nathaniel Hulme, M.D. F.R.S. and A.S.'

We step on to this article as to a kindred subject, though not very nearly connected with the experiments of Mr. Herschel. Dr. Hulme in this 'continuation,' first examines the effects of different aërial fluids on the spontaneous emission of light. Herrings and other animals, which contain light as a component part, do not, in our author's opinion, emit it, except when exposed to the air. His experiments are not however perfectly conclusive; for the bodies placed in contact with the

luminous ones are themselves capable of imbibing light, and therefore, though emitted, it may not be visible, as it is again absorbed. It is better ascertained that the blast of a pair of bellows does not increase the emission of light;—perhaps it could not have been expected. Oxygen gas rendered the light somewhat more vivid than common air, though but slightly so. Azotic gas either prevented the emission of light, or extinguished it: yet the light was preserved in this gas when previously fixed on a cork. This is by no means so remarkable as the author supposes: it may prevent the separation by impeding or checking the decomposition, while it does not effect the light already separated.

Hydrogen and carbonic acid and gas not only prevent the emission of light, but extinguish it. Yet the light is not destroyed, for it again appears when exposed to the air of the atmosphere. Sulfurated hydrogen gas is more powerful in its action of extinguishing light, which returns also more slowly in open air. Nitrous gas is more powerful still; and the light, except from the glow-worm, could not be re-produced. A vacuum destroyed light, which the return of air re-illumined.

The next section is on solar light, imbibed by Mr. Canton's phosphorus. Moderate heat rendered the light more vivid, but increased heat extinguished it. Dr. Hulme however, in no part of this paper, considers the light as occasioned by decomposition. He should have pointed out, that, in the latter case, the emission of light was at first extraordinarily vivid. In fact, the heat hastened the complete decomposition, and did not, strictly speaking, *extinguish* the light. He should have remarked also, that phosphorus, kept in a dark state, loses all the light that can be *spontaneously* emitted. It requires the assistance of heat to separate more. The solar light, imbibed by the phosphorus, is subject to the influence of heat and cold, like the light from rotten wood, glow-worms, and fishes. It remains to be inquired, whether it be affected in the same manner by different gasses?

'XIV. Observations on the Structure, and Mode of Growth, of the grinding Teeth of the Wild Boar, and *Animal incognitum*. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.'

Mr. Home having explained the structure of the molares of the elephant and sus Æthiopicus, was led to inquire whether the same structure were observable in the other species of sus. He was disappointed, seemingly, because the age of the animals was not mature enough for the production of the second set of teeth. In the wild boar, which had attained a more mature period, he found a similar formation. In the elephant, the sus Æthiopicus, and the wild boar, only, is found this extension of the masticating surface of the grinding teeth. In these also

the last permanent tooth is formed before the temporary ones are shed. We shall add the following obervations without a remark.

'In the human species, the mode of dentition is upon the same principle as in the wild boar; only the last-formed grinding teeth in each jaw, called dentes sapientiæ, from the late period of life at which they cut the gum, do not in size exceed the others, but are rather smaller, and very often have not sufficient room in the jaw to come into their regular place, although they do not make their appearance till between twenty and thirty years of age.

'In the negro, the dentes sapientiæ have sufficient room to come into their place, and are in general full as large as the other grinders; the growth of the posterior part of the jaw being evidently greater than in the European.

'When the age of man was much greater than at present, it is natural to suppose the growth of the posterior part of the jaw was continued for a longer time, and the space for the dentes sapientiæ was more extensive. Under such circumstances, these teeth would probably be large, in proportion to the space which was to receive them; and when, instead of threescore and ten, a thousand years was the period of a man's life, we should be led to conclude, from the preceding observations, that there was a succession of dentes sapientiæ.

'There is a very curious circumstance in favour of this conjecture, which has been mentioned to me by Sir Joseph Banks. In Otaheite, the natives have a tradition, that Adam, or the first man, was remarkable for the length of his jaws. His name, in their language, is *Taa roa tabi etoomoo*, which signifies the one (the stock) from which all others sprung, with the long jaws; so that these islanders have a tradition of the original race of men having had their jaws much longer than at present.' P. 323.

The teeth of the *animal incognitum*, found on the banks of Ohio in North America, appear to be constructed on the same principle. This is also a long-lived animal, though it be by no means certain that it has tusks. The boar, our author supposes, must be long lived, from its vast bulk often described, and the terror which, at different periods, it has excited.

'XV. Account of some Experiments on the Ascent of the Sap in Trees. In a Letter from Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq. to the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K.B. P.R.S.'

We find it very difficult to understand these experiments, without some better assistance from, or a more minute reference to, the plates. The author seems to have shown, that the nutrition of the bark is from the descending sap, derived from the leaf; and the whole action of each leaf appears to lie between itself and the root. The medulla is by no means necessary to the progress of the sap; and the leaf will perform its office without the aid of this central portion. The following observations merit our attention.

'Whilst I was waiting the result of the preceding experiments, I made a few efforts to discover another branch of circulation, namely, that which takes place within the fruit, and conveys nourishment to the future offspring. My experiments were here, however, confined almost entirely to two species of fruit, the apple and the pear; and, therefore, as the organisation of different fruits is evidently different, I do not consider my observations such as can throw much general light on the subject. Examining the fruit-stalks of the apple, the pear, the vine, and some other fruit-trees, I found their organisation to be nearly similar to that of the branch from which they sprang, and to consist of the medulla, the central tubes, a very small portion of wood, the spiral tubes and those of the bark, and the two external skins. Tracing the progress of these in the full-grown fruits of the apple and pear, I found, as Linnæus has described, that the medulla appeared to end in the pistilla. The central vessels diverged round the core, and, approaching each other again in the eye of the fruit, seemed to end in ten points at the base of the stamina, to which I believe they give existence. The spiral tubes, which are in all other parts appendages to these vessels, I could not trace beyond the commencement of the core; but, as the vessels themselves extend through the whole fruit, it is probable that the spiral tubes may have escaped my observation. Linnæus supposes the stamina to arise from the wood. I should not venture to state an opinion in opposition to his; but I believe he has not any where distinguished those I call the central vessels, from the common tubes of the wood.

'Having hitherto found that all advancing fluids appeared to pass either along the tubes of the alburnum, or along the central vessels, I had little doubt that the fruit was fed through the latter; but my efforts to ascertain this, in the autumn of 1799, were not successful. In the last spring I was more fortunate. Placing small branches of the apple, the pear, and the vine, with blossoms not yet expanded, in a decoction of logwood, I found that the colouring matter readily passed up the central tubes of the fruit-stalks of all; and, in the apple and pear, I easily traced it, through the future fruit, to the base of the stamina. The office of the tubes in the bark did not appear in this experiment; but, as I have reason to believe the motion of the sap in the bark to be always retrograde, I am disposed to conclude that it is so here, and that, through the bark of the stalk, any superfluous humour existing in the fruit, from excessive humidity of weather, or other cause, is carried back and absorbed by the tree. I have, however, very frequently repeated an experiment on the vine, which, I think, evidently proves that the fluid returned (if any) is essentially different from that which is derived from the leaf. In the culture of this fruit, I have frequently pinched off the young shoot, immediately above a bunch, as soon as the latter became visible in the spring, letting the leaf opposite the bunch remain. In this case, the wood below the upper leaf acquired nearly its proper length and substance. But when I have taken off that leaf, the wood between the bunch and the next leaf below has ceased to elongate, and has remained, in form and substace, similar to the small fruit-stalk attached to it.' P. 339.

The fruit of apples and pears is nourished by central vessels; and the internal organisation appears, to our author, to resemble that of the placenta and umbilical cord in the human system. In considering the cause of the ascent of the sap, Mr. Knight rests on the irritability of the vegetable, and transfers to vegetation the doctrine of accumulated and exhausted irritability. His own instance of the peach-tree, at the end of p. 343, is, we think, decisive against it; for the irritability must have been here exhausted. The silver grain, as it is called, diverging from the medulla to the bark, are, it is said, the agents of the propulsion of the sap, and these are affected very powerfully by heat and moisture, even after the tree is sawed into planks. Our author's arguments and observations in support of this idea must be read in the paper; for they would detain us too long, were we to attempt an abstract of them. The medulla Mr. Knight thinks to be a reservoir of moisture; and the heart of the wood, distinguished from the alburnum, is designed, in his opinion, to supply the place of bone.

'As I have not been able to find the spiral tubes any where, except immediately surrounding the medulla in different parts, in the seed, and in the leaf, and as they every where terminate at short distances, I conclude that the sap is not raised by their agency, nor by the central vessels, to which they are appendages; for these extend no greater length downwards than the spiral tubes, and terminate with them, at the external surface of that annual layer of wood to which they belong; and they have not any apparent communication with the similar vessels of the succeeding year. In the lower parts of hollow trees they must long have ceased to exist at all; and in all trees, except very young ones, they are (as it were) ossified within the heart-wood; and those in the annual shoots and buds are often a hundred and fifty feet distant from the roots, from which they are supposed to raise the sap.

'The common tubes of the alburnum (which do not appear to me to have been properly distinguished from the central vessels by the authors that I have read) extend from the points of the annual shoots to the extremities of the roots; and up these tubes the sap most certainly ascends, impelled, I believe, by the agency of the silver grain. At the base of the buds, and in the soft and succulent part of the annual shoot, the alburnum, with the silver grain, ceases to act and to exist; and here, I believe, commences the action of the central vessels, with their appendages, the spiral tubes. By these the sap is carried into the leaves, and exposed to the air and light; and here it seems to acquire (by what means I shall not attempt to decide) the power to generate the various inflammable substances that are found in the plant. It appears to be then brought back again, through the vessels of the leaf stalk, to the bark, and by that to be conveyed to every part of the tree, to add new matter, and to compose its various organs for the succeeding season. When I have in-

tentionally shaded the leaves, I have found that the quantity of alburnum deposited has been extremely small.' P. 351.

'XVII. On an improved reflecting Circle. By Joseph de Mendoza Rios, Esq. F.R.S.'

Of this improvement it is impossible to convey an intelligible description.

'XVIII. Observations and Experiments upon Dr. James's Powder; with a Method of preparing, in the humid Way, a similar Substance. By Richard Chenevix, Esq. F.R.S. M.R.I.A.'

The antimonial powder is well known to be a very uncertain preparation of antimony; and few, we believe, with every precaution, can produce it in two different processes of equal strength. Fire, as Mr. Chenevix properly observes, is too precarious and uncertain an agent. It is highly probable that there is no chemical combination of the antimony and the phosphoric acid in this preparation. In the humid way the same ambiguity exists; but the strength of the preparation is more uniform, though the medicine be less active. We shall add the process.

'Dissolve, together or separately, in the least possible portion of muriatic acid, equal parts of the fore-mentioned white oxyd of antimony and phosphat of lime *. Pour this solution gradually into distilled water, previously alkalizated by a sufficient quantity of ammonia. A white and abundant precipitate will take place, which, well washed and dried, is the substitute I propose for Dr. James's powder.' P. 379.

Some satisfactory evidence is added of the similarity of the effects of this powder with those of the common antimonial powder, allowing for its weaker power.

'XIX. Case of a young Gentleman who recovered his Sight when seven Years of Age, after having been deprived of it by Cataracts before he was a Year old; with Remarks. By Mr. James Ware, Surgeon. Communicated by Maxwell Garthshore, M.D. F.R.S.'

We must suppose that the young man had seen objects in

'* In order to procure the phosphat of lime, I dissolved in muriatic acid a quantity of calcined bone, and precipitated by ammonia, in its state of greatest causticity. By this means the excess of muriatic acid, which held in solution the phosphat of lime, is saturated, and the phosphat is precipitated; but no muriat of lime is decomposed, if the ammonia is quite free from carbonic acid. This is the most direct method of obtaining phosphat of lime pure. This salt is not decomposed, as some have asserted, by muriatic acid, but merely dissolved by it. I have been induced to state fully the particulars, because, from the beneficial effects of this salt in the treatment of rachitis, as proposed by M. Bonhomme, (*Annales de Chymie*, vol. XVIII. p. 113,) it may become of general use. The oxyd of antimony I obtained by precipitating, by water, the common butter of antimony of the shops.'

some imperfect degree, or that Mr. Cheselden's narrative is fabulous. Yet we recollect discovering, among the papers of an old surgeon, a MS. of a similar case; and we recognise no great difference in the representation from that of Mr. Cheselden. We therefore suspect that the same sense which could distinguish colours could give the idea of distance. We shall select the author's recapitulation of the whole paper.

'First, When children are born blind, in consequence of having cataracts in their eyes, they are never so totally deprived of sight as not to be able to distinguish colours; and, though they cannot see the figure of an object, nor even its colour, unless it be placed within a very short distance, they nevertheless can tell whether, when within this distance, it be brought nearer to, or carried farther from them.

'Secondly, In consequence of this power, whilst in a state of comparative blindness, children who have their cataracts removed, are enabled, immediately on the acquisition of sight, to form some judgement of the distance, and even of the outline, of those strongly defined objects with the colour of which they were previously acquainted.

'Thirdly, When children have been born with cataracts, the crystalline humour has generally, if not always, been found either in a soft or fluid state. If, therefore, it be not accompanied with an opacity, either in the anterior or posterior portion of the capsule, and this capsule be largely punctured with the couching needle, introduced in the way in which this instrument is usually employed to depress the cataract, there is reason to expect that the opaque matter will, sooner or later, be absorbed, the pupil become clear, and the sight be restored.

'Fourthly, If, in addition to the opacity of the crystalline humour, its capsule be also opaque, either in its anterior or posterior portion, or in both, (which circumstance cannot be ascertained before the operation,) and, in consequence of this, the operation above mentioned should not prove successful, it will not preclude the performance of extraction afterwards, if this be thought adviseable.

'Fifthly, The operation above mentioned being much more easy to perform than that of extraction, and it being possible to fix the eye with perfect safety during its performance, by means of a speculum oculi, it may be undertaken at a much earlier age than the latter operation; and a chance may of course be given to the patient of receiving instruction, without that loss of time which has usually been thought unavoidable, when children are born with this disorder.' P. 394.

'XX. An Account of some Galvanic Combinations, formed by the Arrangement of single metallic Plates and Fluids, analogous to the new Galvanic Apparatus of Mr. Volta. By Mr. Humphry Davy, Lecturer on Chemistry in the Royal In-

ancient Scottish poems. It would also seem that Dr. Percy has included distinct professions under the name of minstrels, which term, it is sufficiently clear, denoted musicians alone, and had no connexion either with that of a rhyme-maker or poet, or that of a joculator or juggler. In the account of the latter our author introduces the following feats of activity.

'The *rope-dance*. This species of amusement is certainly very ancient. Terence, in the prologue to Hecyra, complains that the attention of the public was drawn from his play by the exhibitions of a rope-dancer. We are well assured that dancing upon the rope constituted a part of the entertainments presented to the public by the minstrels and joculators; and we can trace it as far back as the thirteenth century: but whether the dancers at that time exhibited upon the slack or tight rope, or upon both, cannot easily be ascertained; and we are equally in the dark respecting the extent of their abilities: but, if we may judge from the existing specimens of other feats of agility performed by them or their companions, we may fairly conclude that they were by no means contemptible artists.

When Isabel of Bavaria, queen to Charles the Sixth of France, made her public entry into Paris, among other extraordinary exhibitions prepared for her reception was the following, recorded by Froissart, who was himself a witness to the fact: "There was a mayster came out of Geane; he had tied a corde upon the hyghest house on the brydge of Saynt Michell over all the houses, and the other ende was tyed to the hyghest tower of our Ladye's churche; and, as the quene passed by, and was in the great streat called Our Ladye's strete; bycause it was late, this sayd mayster, wyth two brinnynge candelles in hys handes, issued out of a littel stage that he had made on the heyght of our Lady's tower, synginge as he went upon the cord all alonge the great strete, so that all that sawe him hadde marvayle how it might be; and he bore still in hys handes the two brinnynge candelles, so that he myght be well sene all over Parys, and two myles without the city. He was such a tombler, that his lightnesse was greatly praised."

'A performance much resembling the foregoing was exhibited before king Edward the Sixth, at the time he passed in procession through the city of London, previous to his coronation. "When the king," says the author, "was advanced almost to St. George's church, in Paul's church-yard, there was a rope as great as the cable of a ship, stretched in length from the battlements of Paul's steeple, with a great anchor at one end fastened a little before the dean of Paul's house-gate; and, when his majesty approached near the same, there came a man, a stranger, being a native of Arragon, lying on the rope, his head forward, casting his arms and legs abroad, running on his breast on the rope from the battlements to the ground, as if it had been an arrow out of a bow, and stayed on the ground. Then he came to the king's majesty, and kissed his foot; and so, after certain words to his highness, he departed from him again, and went upwards upon the rope till he came over the midst of the church-yard; where he, having a rope about him, played certain my-

steries on the rope, as tumbling, and casting one leg from another. Then took he the rope, and tied it to the cable, and tied himself by the right leg a little space beneath the wrist of the foot, and hung by one leg a certain space, and after recovered himself again with the said rope, and unknit the knot, and came down again. Which stayed his majesty, with all the train, a good space of time."

'This trick was repeated, though probably by another performer, in the reign of queen Mary; for, according to Holinshed, among the various shows prepared for the reception of Philip, king of Spain, was one of a man who "came downe upon a rope, tied to the battlement of Saint Paule's church, with his head before, neither staieing himself with hand or foot; which," adds the author, "shortlie after cost him his life."

'A similar exploit was put in practice, about fifty years back, in different parts of this kingdom; and I received the following account of the manner in which it was carried into execution at Hertford from a friend of mine, who assisted the exhibitor in adjusting his apparatus, and saw his performance several times:—A rope was stretched from the top of the tower of All Saints church, and brought obliquely to the ground about fourscore yards from the bottom of the tower, where, being drawn over two strong pieces of wood nailed across each other, it was made fast to a stake driven into the earth; two or three feather-beds were then placed upon the cross timbers, to receive the performer when he descended, and to break his fall. He was also provided with a flat board having a groove in the midst of it, which he attached to his breast; and when he intended to exhibit, he laid himself upon the top of the rope, with his head downwards, and adjusted the groove to the rope, his legs being held by a person appointed for that purpose, until such time as he had properly balanced himself. He was then liberated, and descended with incredible swiftness from the top of the tower to the feather-beds, which prevented his reaching the ground. This man had lost one of his legs, and its place was supplied by a wooden leg, which was furnished on this occasion with a quantity of lead sufficient to counterpoise the weight of the other.' P. 166.

'A show-bill for Bartholomew fair, during the reign of queen Anne, announces "The wonderful performances of that most celebrated master Simpson, the famous vaulter, who, being lately arrived from Italy, will show the world what vaulting is!" The bill speaks pompously; but how far his abilities coincided with the promise I cannot determine, for none of his exertions are specified. But the most extraordinary vaulter that has appeared within my memory was brought forward last year at the Circus. He was then about eighteen years of age, exceedingly well made, and upwards of six feet high. He leaped over nine horses standing side by side, and a man seated upon the middle horse; he jumped over a garter held fourteen feet high; and at another jump kicked a bladder hanging sixteen feet at least from the ground; and, for his own benefit, he leaped over a temporary machine representing a broad-wheeled waggon with the tilt. These astonishing specimens of strength and agility

were performed, without any trick or deception, by a fair jump, and not with the *somersault*, which is usually practised on such occasions. After a run of ten or twelve yards, he ascended an inclined plane, constructed with thick boards, and about three feet in height at one end; from the upper part of this plane he made his spring, and, having performed the leap, was received into a carpet held by six or eight men. It may readily be supposed that exertions of such an extraordinary nature could not be long continued without some disastrous accident; and accordingly, in the first season of his engagement, he sprained the tendon of his heel so violently, that he could not perform for a considerable time afterwards.' P. 176.

The sixth chapter contains feats performed by tame animals; among which are properly classed the combats of pugilists. The seventh chapter is occupied with bowling, and similar exercises.

'The pastime of *bowling*, whether practised upon open greens, or in bowling-alleys, was probably an invention of the middle ages. I cannot by any means ascertain the time of its introduction; but I have traced it back to the thirteenth century. The earliest representation of a game played with bowls that I have met with occurs on the twenty-seventh plate, where two small cones are placed upright at a distance from each other; and the business of the players is evidently to bowl at them alternately; the successful candidate being he who could lay his bowl nearest to the mark. At the top of the same plate are two other bowlers; but they have no apparent object to play at, unless the bowl cast by the first may be considered as such by the second, and the game require him to strike it from its place. Below these we see three persons engaged in the pastime of bowling; and they have a small bowl, or jack, according to the modern practice, which serves them as a mark for the direction of their bowls: the action of the middle figure, whose bowl is supposed to be running towards the jack, will not appear by any means extravagant to such as are accustomed to visit the bowling-greens. The following little poem, called "A Parallel betwixt Bowling and Preferment," which I found in one of the manuscripts at the British Museum, expresses happily enough the turns and chances of the game of bowls:

"Preferment, like a game at boules,
To feede our hope hath divers play:
Heere quick it runns, there soft it roules;
The betters make and shew the way
On upper ground, so great allies
Doe many *cast* on their desire;
Some up are thrust, and forc'd to rise,
When those are stopt that would aspire.

"Some, whose heat and zeal exceed,
Thrive well by *rubbs* that curb their haste,
And some that languish in their speed
Are cherished by some favour's blaste;

Some rest in others' *cutting out*
The same by whom themselves are made;
Some fetch a *compass* farr about,
And secretly the marke invade.

" Some get by *knocks*, and so advance
Their fortune by a boysterous aime;
And some, who haye the sweetest chance,
Their en'mies *hit*, and win the game.
The fairest *casts* are those that owe
No thanks to fortune's giddy sway;
Such honest men good *bowlers* are
Whose own true *bias cutts* the way."

'In the three delineations above mentioned, we may observe that the players have only one bowl for each person; the modern bowlers have usually three or four.

'Bowling-greens are said to have originated in England, and bowling upon them, in my memory, was a very popular amusement. In most country towns of any note they are to be found, and some few are still remaining in the vicinity of the metropolis; but none of them, I believe, are now so generally frequented as they were accustomed to be formerly.' P. 199.

'Bowling, according to an author of the seventeenth century, is a pastime "in which a man shall find great art in chusing out his ground, and preventing the winding, hanging, and many turning advantages of the same, whether it be in open wilde places, or in close allies; and for his sport, the chusing of the bowle is the greatest cunning; your flat bowles being best for allies, your round byazed bowles for open grounds of advantage, and your round bowles, like a ball, for green swarthes that are plain and level."

'On the top of the twenty-eighth plate is the representation of a very curious ancient pastime, which seems to bear some analogy to bowling; but the bowls, instead of being cast by the hand, are driven with a battoon or mace, through an arch, towards a mark at a distance from it; and hence, I make no doubt, originated the game of billiards, which formerly was played with a similar kind of arch and a mark called the *king*, but placed upon a table instead of the ground. The improvement by adding the table answered two good purposes: it precluded the necessity for the player to kneel, or stoop exceedingly, when he struck the bowl, and accommodated the game to the limits of a chamber.' P. 201.

In the fourth book Mr. Strutt proceeds to domestic amusements of various kinds, and pastimes appropriated to particular seasons.

'It has been remarked by foreigners that the English are particularly fond of bell-ringing; and indeed most of our churches have a ring of bells in the steeple, partly appropriated to that purpose. These bells are rung upon most occasions of joy and festivity, and sometimes at funerals, when they are muffled, with a piece of woollen

cloth bound about the clapper, and the sounds then emitted by them are exceeding unmelodious, and well fitted to inspire the mind with melancholy. Ringing of rounds—that is, sounding every bell in succession, from the least to the greatest, and repeating the operation—produces no variety; on the contrary, the reiteration of the same cadences in a short time becomes tiresome; for which reason the ringing of changes has been introduced, wherein the succession of the bells is shifted continually; and by this means a varied combination of different sounds, exceeding pleasant to the ear, is readily produced. This improvement in the art of ringing is thought to be peculiar to the people of this country. Ringing the bells backwards is sometimes mentioned, and probably consisted in beginning with the largest bell, and ending with the least: it appears to have been practised by the ringers as a mark of contempt or disgust.

'The antiquity of bell-ringing in England cannot readily be ascertained: it is said that bells were invented by Paulinus, bishop of Nola, at the commencement of the fifth century: they were afterwards used in Brittany, and thence perhaps brought into this country. Ingulphus speaks of them as well known in his time, and tells us "that Turketullus, the first abbot of Croyland, gave six bells to that monastery; that is to say, two great ones, which he named Bartholomew and Betteline; two of a middling size, called Turketulum and Beterine; and two small ones, denominated Pega and Bega: he also caused the greatest bell to be made, called Gudhlac; which was tuned to the other bells, and produced an admirable harmony, not to be equaled in England."

'I know not how far the pastime of bell-ringing attracted the notice of the opulent in former times; at present it is confined to the lower classes of the people, who are paid by the parish for ringing upon certain holydays. At weddings, as well as upon other festive occurrences, they usually ring the bells, in expectance of a pecuniary reward.' P. 218.

The billiards, and similar games, are afterwards illustrated.

In the second chapter of this fourth and last book our ingenious author gives an account of various sedentary games; and his anecdotes are curious and amusing. After mentioning the supposed origin of cards, Mr. Strutt thus proceeds:

'A very intelligent writer upon the origin of engraving asserts that playing-cards were invented in Germany, where they were used towards the latter end of the fourteenth century; but his reasons are by no means conclusive.

'An author of our own country produces a passage cited from a wardrobe computus made in the sixth year of Edward the First, which mentions a game entitled "the four kings;" and hence, with some degree of probability, he conjectures that the use of playing-cards was then known in England, which is a much earlier period than any that has been assigned by the foreign authors. It is the opinion of several learned writers well acquainted with Asiatic history, that cards were used in the eastern parts of the world long before they found their way into Europe. If this position be granted,

when we recollect that Edward the First, before his accession to the throne, resided nearly five years in Syria, it will be natural enough to suppose that he might have learned the game of "the four kings" in that country, and introduced it at court upon his return to England. An objection, which indeed at first sight seems to be a very powerful one, has been raised in opposition to this conjecture: it is founded upon the total silence of every kind of authority respecting the subject of card-playing from the time that the above mentioned entry was made, to an early period in the reign of Edward the Fourth, including an interval of one hundred and eighty-six years. An omission so general it is thought would not have taken place, if the words contained in that record alluded to the usage of playing-cards. A game introduced by a monarch could not fail of becoming fashionable; and, if it continued to be practised in after times, must in all probability have been mentioned occasionally in conjunction with the other pastimes then prevalent. But this silence is by no means a positive proof that the game of *the four kings* was not played with cards, nor that cards did not long continue to be used during the whole of the above-mentioned interval in the higher circles, though not perhaps with such abuses as were afterwards practised, and which excited the reprehension of the moral and religious writers. Besides, at the time that cards were first introduced, they were drawn and painted by the hand, without the assistance of a stamp or plate; it follows of course that much time was required to complete a set or pack of cards; the price they bore, no doubt, was adequate to the labour bestowed upon them, which necessarily must have enhanced their value beyond the purchase of the under classes of the people; and for this reason it is, I presume, that card-playing, though it might have been known in England, was not much practised until such time as inferior sets of cards, proportionably cheap, were produced for the use of the commonalty, which seems to have been the case when Edward the Fourth ascended the throne; for early in his reign an act was established prohibiting the importation of playing-cards; and soon after that period card-playing became a very general pastime.

'The increasing demand for these objects of amusement, it is said, suggested the idea of cutting the outlines appropriated to the different suits upon separate blocks of wood and stamping them upon the cards, the intermediate spaces between the outlines being filled up with various colours laid on by the hand. This expeditious method of producing cards reduced the price of them so that they might readily be purchased by almost every class of persons; the common usage of cards was soon productive of serious evils, which all the exertions of the legislative power have not been able to eradicate.

'Another argument against the great antiquity of playing-cards is drawn from the want of paper proper for their fabrication. We certainly have no reason to believe that paper made with linen rags was produced in Europe before the middle of the fourteenth century; and even then the art of paper-making does not appear to have been carried to any great perfection. It is also granted that paper

is the most proper material we know of for the manufacturing of cards; but it will not therefore follow that they could not possibly be made with any other; and if we admit of any other, the objection will fall to the ground.

'Card-playing appears to have been a very fashionable court amusement in the reign of Henry the Seventh. In an account of money disbursed for the use of that monarch, an entry is made of one hundred shillings paid at one time to him for the purpose of playing at cards. The princess Margaret, his daughter, previous to her marriage with James the Fourth, king of Scotland, understood the use of cards; and Catherine of Spain, the consort of prince Arthur, afterwards married to Henry the Eighth his brother, is said in her youth to have been well acquainted with the art of embroidery and other works of the needle proper for ladies to know, and also that she was expert in various courtly pastimes, and could play at "tables, tick-tacke or gleeke, with cardis and dyce."

'The universality of card-playing in the reign of this monarch is evident from a prohibitory statute being necessary to prevent apprentices from using cards except in the Christmas holidays, and then only in their masters' houses. Agreeable to this privilege, Stow, speaking of the customs at London, says, "From All-Hallows eve to the day following Candlemas-day, there was, among other sports, playing at cards for counters, nails, and points, in every house, more for pastime than for gain." But this moderation, I apprehend, was by no means general; for several contemporary writers are exceedingly severe in their reflexions upon the usage of cards, which they rank with dice, and consider both as destructive to morality and good order.' P. 242.

Several games at cards, particularly the more ancient, are then explained; and in the third chapter our author gives an account of Christmas games, May games, &c.

'The barbarous and wicked diversion of throwing at cocks usually took place at all the wakes and fairs that were held about Shrovetide, and especially at such of them as were kept on Shrove-Tuesday. Upon the abolition of this inhuman custom, the place of the living birds was supplied by toys made in the shape of cocks, with large and heavy stands of lead, at which the boys, on paying some very trifling sum, were permitted to throw as heretofore; and he who could overturn the toy claimed it as a reward for his adroitness. This innocent pastime never became popular; for the sport derived from the torment of a living creature existed no longer, and its want was not to be compensated by the overthrowing or breaking a motionless representative; therefore the diversion was very soon discontinued. At present snuff-boxes, tobacco-boxes, and other trinkets of small value, or else halfpence or gingerbread, placed upon low stands, are thown at, and sometimes apples and oranges, set up in small heaps; and children are usually enticed to lay out their money for permission to throw at them by the owners, who keep continually bawling—"Knock down one, you have them all!" P. 276.

The fourth chapter contains games practised by children, and might admit of many additions.

At the end is an Appendix, containing an account of the manuscripts from which the plates are taken, together with thirty-nine plates neatly and accurately engraved. We regret, as already mentioned, the want of an index. Of the work itself we have already expressed our sentiments, as an amusing accession to the library of English antiquity.

ART. XIII.—*A Treatise on the Cow-Pox; containing the History of Vaccine Inoculation, and an Account of the various Publications which have appeared on that Subject in Great-Britain and other Parts of the World. By John Ring. Part I.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Carpenters. 1801.

THE exuberant and fulsome style of adulation which pervades this volume disgusted us no less than the exaggeration with which every minute circumstance is extolled. We mean not to detract from the merit of Dr. Jenner: we allow it all, and as much as his best friends would wish. A fact well known in the Gloucestershire dairies, viz. that a disease of the cows would secure those who had been infected with it from the small-pox, he has brought forward with additional evidence, and endeavoured to render general. He deserves, even should he prove unsuccessful, no slight commendation for this attempt. But his adulator turns what might be great into farce—'the sun of science,' 'the prophetic eye,' 'condescending to reply,'—transform the promulgator of a previously observed fact into a discoverer of the first magnitude. Harvey, Copernicus, and Newton, could have obtained no more: and perhaps each would have turned with disgust from such extravagant panegyrics. Dr. Jenner from *himself* has advanced but one step, viz. to connect the cow-pox with a disease more disgusting and loathsome than almost any other. He has already, within our own knowledge, deprived many a valetudinarian of his salubrious diet; and for what? for a theory not worth a contest—for a doctrine which, whether true or false, cannot add an iota to science, cannot contribute to the comfort or relief of a single individual—for a speculative question, contemptible in its source and injurious in its consequences. This is brought forward by Mr. Ring with great pomp, and with additional evidence, for reasons which we cannot fathom; except that Dr. Jenner, being the sun of science, 'the god kissing carrion,' must be the cause of whatever is most disgusting as well as most beneficial.

In this treatise we find an analysis of whatever has been published on this subject; and the letters in different journals are

copiously abridged or transcribed. We will not add that these have been already noticed by us; for from their form they could not be the subject of our remarks, and from their importance they would not. Our readers may have observed that we have looked at publications on this subject somewhat fastidiously. We have done so, for we saw their foundation. The subject itself we have closely watched, and have given its substance within narrow limits: indeed it did not require any very extensive research. The foreign publications we have designedly passed by, not because they have not been before us, but because the vehicle only was altered—the medicine remained the same; and we shall now only shortly add the state of the question, so far as it becomes one, from the evidence exhibited.

The disease of the cows, from which it derives its name, may certainly be communicated to the human body; and whatever becomes of the question, whether the cow-pox can be repeatedly communicated? the probability is, that it preserves mankind from the small-pox; while the disease in itself is more mild, less communicable by effluvia, and not attended, in particular situations, with symptoms so violent or dangerous. That it preserves from the small-pox, is not yet, in the opinion of every one, clearly established; but we think it to be so. Various facts on the opposite side are adduced; though we are old enough to know that they are not more numerous than those formerly brought by the opponents of inoculation. If it be a fact that in some RARE, VERY RARE instances, the small-pox may twice attack the same person, it will not be surprising, when such repeated infections are earnestly inquired after, and carefully preserved by the opponents of the cow-pox, that similar ones may be found with respect to this latter disease.

The disease itself is certainly more mild, and, we believe, scarcely, if ever, attended with the dangerous symptoms of inoculated small-pox; yet we think the idea should not be held up that such symptoms *never* occur. Should there happen to be such, even from accidental coincidence, the practice would suffer from the disappointment. Some of these we think we have witnessed, though in circumstances that ought not to affect the question in general. That the disease is *never* attended with pustules, or communicated by effluvia, has not yet been indisputably ascertained; but the general evidence is decidedly in favour of the cow-pox.

We have perhaps, in this short compass, said more in favour of the cow-pox than Mr. Ring in his laboured compilation; for we admit that we were prejudiced against it; and the above is the result of a patient investigation. As we have hinted that the advocates of the cow-pox should not aim at proving too much,—and indeed this is unnecessary, as so much is clearly in their favour,—we will add another caution.

In all the disputed cases, where the *small-* has been said to be followed by the *cow*-pox, it has been alleged that the latter has been of the spurious kind. Authors have indeed endeavoured to point out this spurious kind, and its distinguishing appearances; but this has not been done with clearness and precision, nor so publicly nor popularly as the doubts require. It is a very proper subject of consideration in our author's second part. We think it ascertained that the small-pox will not *soon* attack the person who has had the cow-pox; but whether it will *ever* affect him, is perhaps not clear. We mean not however, by this remark, to oppose the new attempt, but to assist its progress; for if we must depend (and in this case it is indispensable) on the observation of an illiterate person, after the interval of from twenty to forty years, every one will admit that objections from this source will have little weight. We have many cases of this kind in *our* records; but, for the reasons just alleged, we think them weaker than a reed. We may add more when the second part comes before us. We wish, however, for other language, and for the omission of the reputed cause.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 14.—*Letters to the Right Honourable Lord Hawkesbury, and to the Right Honourable Henry Addington, on the Peace with Bonaparte: to which is added an Appendix, containing a Collection (now greatly enlarged) of all the Conventions, Treaties, Speeches, and other Documents connected with the Subject. By William Cobbett.* 8vo. 7*s. Boards.* Cobbett *and* Morgan. 1802.

THIS indefatigable writer vomits forth his fury against lord Hawkesbury for the peace, and is terribly sore for the indignity offered to his own house on the night of the illuminations. The editor of the Porcupine, whose whole delight seemed to be to throw dirt, in his paper, upon every public character who was not of his own sentiments, and to hold up to popular resentment every advocate for peace, is in a rage that the popular effervescence should take a contrary direction, and that he should be almost the only object of popular irascibility. We disapprove entirely both the attacks of this writer on public and private characters, and the attack of the populace on his dwelling-house; yet, reflecting on the conduct of the two parties, we cannot avoid observing, that

——— 'Nec lex est justior ulla,
Quam necis artifices arte perire sua.'

The writer of these letters declares that he has ceased to be the editor of the Porcupine since the 21st of November 1801; and we trust that the English press will never again be disgraced with such effusions of malice and resentment, couched in the lowest and vilest terms. Letters like these before us may be written without end, with a book of maps and the news-papers on the table; and the writer, from whom is extorted 'a curse in spite of philosophy and religion,' because the name of Otto precedes that of Hawkesbury, might, if cursing did not seem to be his delight, be relieved from this vexation by learning that there are always two copies of a treaty signed—and that in the other copy the reverse would take place.

ART. 15.—*Letters to the Right Honourable Henry Addington, Chancellor of his Majesty's Exchequer, on the fatal Effects of the Peace with Bonaparte; particularly with respect to the Colonies, the Commerce, the Manufactures, and the Constitution of the United Kingdom. By William Cobbett.* 8*vo.* 3*s.* Cobbett *and* Morgan. 1802.

Mr. Cobbett is in a terrible passion with Mr. Addington for making peace with the French republic. He talks of the right of examining into the conduct of a minister, and communicating to his fellow-subjects the result of his examination; yet he should recollect the asperity of his language against all who, in far milder terms than those in which these letters are couched, ventured to call in question the policy or justice of the war, or the conduct of the ex-minister. Mr. Cobbett also is excessively angry with sir F. M. Eden, whom, 'from his style and his notion of commerce and politics, he takes to be some pedagogue out of place.' We will not venture to decide between these rival politicians—*Arcades ambo*; and very few of our readers, we are convinced, will be at the trouble of reading the lucubrations of either on the good or bad effects of a peace with Bonaparte.

ART. 16.—*The Speech of the Right Honourable William Windham, delivered in the House of Commons, Wednesday Nov.* 4, 1801, *on the Report of an Address to the Throne, approving of the Preliminaries of Peace with the Republic of France.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Cobbett *and* Morgan. 1801.

The speaker is a complete alarmist, and would have war, perpetual war with France—to what effectual purpose (for all the old *galimatias* on religion, social order, the deliverance of Europe, &c. has lost its influence with parliament and people) we cannot from this speech possibly discover. The best answer to it is to be extracted from the speaker's own words—

'When I look at the conduct of the French revolutionary rulers, as compared with that of their opponents; when I see the grandeur of their designs, the wisdom of their plans, the steadiness of their execution, their boldness in acting, their constancy in enduring, their contempt of all small obstacles and temporary embarrassments, their inflexible determination to perform such and such things, and the powers which they have displayed in acting up to that determination; when I contrast these with the narrow views, the paltry in-

terests, the occasional expedients, the desultory and wavering conduct, the want of all right feeling and just conception, that characterise so generally the governments and nations opposed to them, I confess I sink down in despondency, and am fain to admit, that if they shall have conquered the world, it will be by qualities by which they deserve to conquer it.' P. 42.

If the speaker desponds in the vigorous efforts of the government of which he was so principal a part, we cannot at any rate be worse off by the peace; and lives and fortunes will no longer be risked in a fruitless contest. But in peace we may be destroyed by an intercourse with France! French morality will be our ruin!—as if it were possible for republican France to pour in upon us more atheism, more debauchery, more sensuality, than we received from her under her monarchy; and in a country where such efforts have been made to establish a pic-nic society, it does not become us to speak in very high terms of the purity of our morals. The mischief has been done, we fear, by the French already introduced amongst us, whose manners are more easy, and assuredly of not less dangerous imitation, than those of the republicans.

ART. 17.—*Eight Letters on the Peace, and on the Commerce and Manufactures of Great-Britain. By Sir Frederick Morton Eden, Bart.* 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.* Wright. 1802.

These letters made their first appearance in public in the Porcupine, with whose editor the author is not in unison on the subject of the peace. The great question is very little assisted by a quantity of uninteresting matter, dry detail, and tables, from which no facts of material importance can be collected. The lesson to be derived from the useless and bloody struggle in which we have been engaged, is, that a vigorous resistance has enabled Britain—

' —to maintain her independence, and, by the sacrifice of a part, to render the remainder of her wealth more valuable and more improveable! May she gratefully recollect that the revolutionary system which she has opposed has not forced her to surrender her commerce to preserve her constitution, and that the cessation of hostilities does not call on her to surrender her constitution to preserve her commerce. They both may, they both will, flourish together; and when, at some future period, the feverish ambition of mankind shall compel her to unsheath the sword, her constitution and her commerce will again supply her both with motives and with means to prosecute the contest until it can again be terminated with safety and with honour.' P. 131.

Thus concludes a work which at its commencement informed us, that, by our attempt to thrust a constitution down the throats of the French, ' a debt of three hundred millions has been incurred,'—a sum, the annual interest of which is greater than the annual gains of all our commerce, if the returns of our merchants to the income-tax are to be depended upon. That the constitution has not been surrendered in this conflict, may be doubted: at any rate, the most valuable part of it, the habeas-corpus act, was surrendered; and it

may be justly doubted also, whether, like the Bank, it has not lost the sanctity of its character for ever.

ART. 18.—*Considerations concerning Peace. By a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Hatchard.

The object of this pamphlet was to induce the people to petition for peace; and the people are supposed to be almost unanimous in favour of Mr. Pitt. His dismission from office, and the silence into which he has sunk, clearly prove the error of the latter opinion, as not one mark of disapprobation of the measure has occurred in any part of the united kingdom. That the people were almost unanimous for peace, is evident from the universal joy with which the first tidings of it were received throughout the country. This writer has, moreover, the merit of estimating with some degree of precision the attachment that was supposed to have subsisted between Mr. Pitt and his majority in parliament.

'The majority which government at present commands in the house of commons, are, in my humble opinion, of little comparative value, even in the eyes of the minister himself. The herd of courtiers and placemen which the stability of every government requires to be under the immediate influence of the existing ruler are attached —not to Mr. Pitt, but—to the chancellor of the exchequer: these men are less actuated by gratitude than by interest.' P. 2.

ART. 19.—*Three Words to Mr. Pitt, on the War, and on the Peace.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Ridgeway. 1801.

In these Three Words to Mr. Pitt are many excellent observations on his conduct as a minister in general, on the war, and on the peace. The work is written in an easy plain familiar style, and the justice of the remarks is not at all invalidated by the playful humour with which at times it abounds. The real nature of the war is explained in a few words, which may be easily remembered.

'It was a regular conflict of five-and-twenty millions of men, to recover from an individual those rights which in darker days had been usurped from them, and concentrated and exercised, for a long time, by a particular family, so as to have created an opinion that, from the first origin of society, they had been entitled to no other rights than what that favoured family had been pleased to impart to them.' P. 55.

On the peace the writer's sentiments are equally appropriate and just.

'—The peace itself was as good a compromise of a bad bargain as any man had a right to expect.'

'It is true,' (the writer adds, with a proper apostrophe to the ex-minister,) 'we got neither indemnity nor security, we effected not one of the objects of the war; but that, I admit, was not your fault;—you paid well as long as you could get any body to fight for money, and still scolded against Bonaparte, when every other power was silenced; you did all that a brave man could do to cripple, ruin, and

dismember France; and if you did not succeed, it was the fault of the republic, not yours.

'Well, sir, that is not what we complain of. We know very well the extent of your malignity, and your efforts to obtain effect to it. We are only dissatisfied with you for having brought us into the war at all, and for compelling us to fight against people who were only fighting for their liberty—a thing which we once loved very much ourselves; and, after all your fine engagements and promises, to leave us so much weaker, and France so much stronger than before: for the upshot of the business is this—we have doubled our debt, and France has doubled her dominion. In one war you added more to the national debt than all the wars and all the ministers that ever preceded you have done, from the beginning of time to the present day.' P. 65.

We cannot leave our good-humoured satyrist without making another extract, which we hope will induce many of our readers to purchase his work.

'Sir, you will not think, from any thing I have said in the course of this letter, that I mean to flatter either you or your collegues, or your successors or opponents, or the country itself. I am not only without expectation of benefit from any quarter whatever, but almost aloof from society itself; and in blotting so many pages as I have done, I have only given vent to some notions that have been fermenting in my mind for these nine long years, and diverted my attention for a few hours from other afflictions. However, I have certainly said good enough of you to entitle me to some portion of your acknowledgments. All that I require is your order to the literary reviewers attached to administration (for in your retreat you have still influence enough to be obeyed) that they speak with due reverence of this work; otherwise I well know that I have no chance of quarter either from the British Critic or the Anti-Jacobin Review, whose very title announces hostility to such discussions as I have engaged in; and if they consign me to the pastry-cook, how am I to subsist? My labour, being but of little value, I calculate at nothing; but now that printing-paper has, under your glorious administration, become almost as valuable as that which is manufactured at the bank, it would ruin me if my letter were to remain unsold: I therefore entreat that you will not only read it yourself, but that you will recommend it to the perusal of others, under the assurance that one tenth of all my literary profits shall be fairly paid to your income-tax.' P. 88.

ART. 20.—*Letters of the Dead; or, Epistles from the Statesmen of former Days to those of the present Hour.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1802.

An inflated bombastic panegyric of Mr. Pitt—an unhappy imitation of Mr. Burke in his own unhappiest moments. It is truly ludicrous to hear it asserted, that 'to the fortitude of Mr. Pitt and his little phalanx of co-patriots, not only Britain, but the whole civilised world, is indebted for the check to anarchy.' That anarchy received strength from their opposition;—and it is unfortunate for the writer that it ceased at the time when these co-patriots ceased to possess power.

ART. 21.—*The Boa Constrictor: an Illustration from the Natural of what has appeared in the Political World; suggested in consequence of a Recollection of Events which was provoked by a late French semi-official Publication in the Moniteur: concluding with some Considerations respecting Negotiation. By the Author of the Theory of Chess.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1801.

France is compared to the *boa constrictor*, the monstrous serpent that is accustomed to swallow down stags and tigers, after it has, by winding round them, broken their bones and made them fit for deglutition. The image is in itself not very agreeable; nor is there any merit in the composition to encourage a reader to inquire farther into its contents.

ART. 22.—*The Impolicy of returning Bankers to Parliament in the ensuing general Election; including Strictures on the Productions under the Signature of Common Sense, &c. &c. Dedicated to his Grace the Duke of Bedford. By a Friend to the Poor, the Commerce, and the Constitution of England.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1802.

This impolicy is said to arise from the interest which the bankers have in supporting the present destructive paper system, which, no one can doubt, is fraught with the most injurious consequences to the king, the constitution, and the country. The moment that the bank was permitted to stop payment, and to issue notes without control, a deluge of fictitious paper covered the land, which necessarily produced monopoly, scarcity, and poverty. These facts are clearly proved in the pamphlet before us: but the writer ought to have made himself better acquainted with the controversy on Mr. Boyd's pamphlet, and to have stated the result of the discussion which arose from it. We cannot doubt that fictitious paper must be removed before the country can be restored to its former salutary state; but we do not see that the disqualification of bankers from a seat in parliament is the proper remedy. Their numbers or influence is not sufficiently great to render them of such importance. The lower classes, who suffer from the paper system, should resolve to vote only for that candidate who pledges himself to resist the fictitious paper system, and to compel every person to perform his promise on paper, to pay, or to suffer the penalty inflicted by law against swindlers and debtors.

ART. 23.—*The Sound and Baltic, considered in a political, military, and commercial View: intended to illustrate the relative Connexions and maritime Strength of the Northern Powers. To which are added, Observations upon Egypt, and the Trade of India, as connected with the Baltic, or East Sea. Translated from a German Pamphlet, published at Berlin in April last.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

Great-Britain has, in the last conflict with France, lost much of her reputation—not indeed for want of bravery in her marine or skill in the management of her ships, or resources to subsidise foreign troops—but she is accused of an aggrandising spirit, and an endeavour to turn every event on the continent to her own profit, without the least regard to the rights of foreign powers. This ill humour of our neighbours towards us is manifested in a variety of publications, and particularly those that issue from the German presses; and no opportunity is lost in the pamphlet before us of throwing out insinuations to our disadvantage. No one indeed can vindicate the conduct of the

late ministers on the capitulation of Kleber in Egypt; the folly of it could be equaled only by its injustice; and it cannot be more reprobated abroad than it is at home: yet a whole nation ought not to lie under a severe stigma for the conduct of a few who may betray the confidence reposed in them. Egypt, says this writer, was—

'—again preserved to France, because the English were too eager to aggrandise themselves, and too regardless of justice to take advantage of a moment which may never again occur. Their conduct at taking possession of the Neapolitan forts is a similar proof of the manner in which the English think and act, and of the principles of justice and equity by which they are governed.' P. 4.

Our conduct at Malta towards Russia is equally reprobated; and we are accused of a breach of promise towards the late emperor, by which the atrocity of his consequent proceedings is in a great measure said to be justified.

'The conduct of England towards these Russian allies is marked with a degree of treachery that forms an epoch in the history of the military law of nations. She refused to exchange them as her auxiliaries, although employed and taken prisoners in an expedition planned solely for her advantage. Such is the mercantile spirit of the cabinet of St. James's, which regards no ties but those knit by self-interest.' P. 15.

We are represented as Jacobins on the sea, and our conquests on that element are depreciated by our arrogance.

'Thus did the English imagine they might presume to dictate maritime laws, because they had it in their power to enforce them, and to benefit themselves by their adoption. The Danish frigate *Freya* was treated as an enemy, notwithstanding her neutral flag; and a Swedish vessel was compelled to assist in cutting two Spanish ships out of the harbour of Barcelona. Prussian ships also were seized;—and the consequence was, that Prussian troops took possession of Cuxhaven.

'Oppressive as was the general monopoly of commerce, which circumstances had thrown into the hands of England (for by it she compelled all Europe to pay a contribution towards the war), the arbitrary and absolute manner in which she insulted every acknowledged maritime right presented to our view consequences still more dangerous. The conduct of England towards Denmark, when the Freya was taken, can never be forgotten. An embassador was sent to Copenhagen, rather to demand than to give satisfaction; and Denmark, not then strengthened by the quadruple alliance, was obliged to submit to an insult by which justice was trodden under foot, and which little minds alone could have triumphed in offering.' P. 16.

The convention of the northern powers is vindicated, and the whole drift of our author is seen in the following passage.

'The far greater proportion of the states of Europe had long been disgusted with England, whose influence alone appeared to prolong hostilities among the contending powers, by means of her intrigues, and the profusion with which she lavished her subsidies; nor could they behold with indifference the new regulations by which she sought to confirm the dominion she had usurped upon the sea.

They became sensible that the tyranny she had hitherto exercised on the ocean was the means of compelling the rest of Europe to contribute to a war which was universally unpopular; and they felt, that if apprehensions were entertained of the extension of the power of the French republic by land, the acts of violence which the English committed by sea were still more to be dreaded.' P. 32.

Whilst attempts are made to diminish even our just and well-earned fame, that of Bonaparte and the French is raised to the highest degree, and their faults are either passed over in silence or very much extenuated. To this extraordinary change in the sentiments of the continental powers a historian will pay great attention; and the cause of the French ascendency will afford, it is to be hoped, a striking lesson to the present and future cabinets. The reflexions in this work, mortifying as they are to our pride, are evidently made by one of some influence in the political world.

RELIGION.

ART. 24.—*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Durham, at the ordinary Visitation of that Diocese, in July*, 1801. *By Shute, Bishop of Durham.* 4*to.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Payne. 1802.

To popery the worthy prelate imputes in a great degree 'the origin of that revolutionary spirit which has gone so far towards the subversion of the ancient establishments of religion and civil government.' Every consistent protestant will subscribe to this opinion, as far as it relates to religion. The absurdities of the popish church were long disgusting to the thinking part of the French nation; and the higher classes, having once acquired a contempt for it, never gave themselves the trouble to examine into its truth, upon its original documents, and were not consequently prepared, on the removal of superstition, to introduce a simpler form of worship. 'The maintenance of opinions unfounded on the authority of the Gospel, and inconsistent with its purity, has given occasion to minds perhaps naturally averse to religion to reject the most valuable evidence of Christianity.' This must be the case every where if the Scriptures be discarded for the traditions of men; and hence, with great propriety, the right-reverend prelate selected for the subject of his charge 'the necessity of cultivating the pure principles of the Gospel, and of studying the means of promoting in ourselves and others a truly spiritual religion.'

This spiritual religion is defined to be 'a sincere devotion of the mind to God, an humble resignation to all his dispensations, an universal and unvaried obedience to his will.' The impediments to it are 'want of faith, ignorance of the Scriptures, the fear of singularity, prejudice, acquiescence in the customs of others well reputed in the world.' Such impediments concern the people chiefly: but their force 'may perhaps be quadrupled by a want of spiritual instruction and accordant conduct in him who should be their guide to truth, whose example should give activity to their duties and spirituality to their hopes and views.' On this latter point the bishop dwells with becoming earnestness and respect to his hearers; and having thus stated to them what are their chief impediments, he proceeds to lay before them the principal means of cultivating and promoting spiritual religion—of which the first cannot be too often

inculcated on both priest and people; and with this impression on our minds we place it before our readers.

'There is no security in religious opinions which are not founded on clear and definite principles. Without such a guide all men are liable to be carried about with every wind of doctrine, with that sleight and subtilty, and cunning craftiness of deceitful sophistry, which the writings of modern infidels have too successfully employed. The young therefore, the unlearned, and the uneducated, which constitute the bulk of your congregations, cannot be too often reminded, what are "the first principles of the oracles of God." They should not only be taught that the foundation of all true religion must be laid in the knowledge of God, and of ourselves; and that the grounds of the first of these two branches of religious knowledge can be collected only from the Scriptures and the works of creation; of the second, from the Scriptures, from the world, and from ourselves; but they should be habituated to a familiar acquaintance with those doctrines, which are to be held as subjects of primary importance in each branch.' P. 14.

Faith is then to be inculcated as the beginning and end of all religion; and having fully imbibed such a doctrine, the mind will be prepared to embrace 'charity as a comprehensive and efficacious principle.' From these general remarks the attention of the younger part of the audience is conducted to certain aids to devotion; and they are particularly, and with great justice, recommended to peruse frequently the ordination service, and to reflect seriously on the solemn question proposed to them on entering upon their office, and the dreadful peril in which they have involved themselves if, instead of consulting 'the glory of God, and the edification of his church, they have been intent, solely or principally, on their own ease or worldly advantage.' Their zeal is excited by the most pressing motives; and a direction is given which deserves to be studied attentively by every minister of the Gospel.

'Whatever is declared in Scripture, you are bound to preach; whatever is peculiar to Christianity, and essential to salvation, must be constantly laid before your congregations, and enforced upon their minds, "whether they will hear, or whether they will forbear;" such principles and such doctrines are indispensable subjects of your instruction and exhortation, whether preached by papist or puritan, conformist or non-conformist; the choice of them is not matter of discretion; for woe to them who preach not the Gospel, the whole Gospel, undiminished and undisguised,' P. 21.

We have been thus ample in our account of this Charge, because our clerical readers who have not an opportunity of perusing the whole will be happy to see as much of it as our limits will permit us to insert; and to them we particularly recommend the following judicious note on the celebrated controversy between faith and works.

'I cannot help thinking that some misconception and perversion of the Scripture doctrine of salvation may have arisen from an ambiguity in the words "saved by faith without works," arising from the

different meanings which may be annexed to them, accordingly as they are spoken or written. If we could have been saved by our own good works, Christ would have died in vain. But as we cannot be saved by works, God has mercifully appointed that we shall be saved by faith without works. But to be "saved by faith, without works," that is, *per fidem, nullo operum adjumento*, has a very different meaning from being saved by faith without works, that is, *per fidem infructuosam*. In the first sense, *without works*, is the attribute of the verb; in the second, it is the attribute of the noun. The difference is still more striking in Greek. We are saved δια πιστεως, ανευ εργων, but not δια πιστεως της ανευ εργων. For, we are saved by faith—without works; but not by the faith which is without works. The former sense, by admitting that we are saved not by works, (for our best works are far short of our duty, but by an atonement of infinitely greater value, does not exclude the necessity of good works; but the latter supposes the validity of a faith unproductive of good works—a sense contrary to the whole tenor of Scripture. To be saved, without works (that is, not by our own good works, but) by faith, is not subject to the same ambiguity as to be "saved by faith without works." P. 6.

ART. 25.—*The Restoration of the Jews, the Crisis of all Nations; or, an Arrangement of the Scripture Prophecies which relate to the Restoration of the Jews, and to some of the most interesting Circumstances which are to accompany and distinguish that important Event; with Illustrations and Remarks drawn from the present Situation and apparent Tendencies of Things, both in Christian and Mahomedan Countries. By J. Bicheno, M. A.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

The restoration of the Jews to their own country seems to be warranted by their preservation for so great a length of time in a state of separation from all other nations; by a variety of texts of Scripture, which can scarcely be reconciled to their return after the first captivity; by the promises of God never to forsake them utterly; by the strong simile of St. Paul on the wild-olive and the graft; and by the corruptions of Christianity, which have so much impeded its progress in the world. That this event cannot be very far distant—we speak not of years but of generations—seems also to be a consequence of the first persuasion of their final return; and that it should be a crisis to all nations, we must readily allow; though, what the nature of that crisis may be, we profess ourselves unable to ascertain, while, at the same time, we give due applause to those who employ their leisure and talents in examining what light the Scriptures throw upon this interesting and important subject. On these accounts we read with pleasure the attempts of this writer to afford us, by an arrangement of Scripture prophecies and the opinions of the most celebrated divines, a better opportunity of exercising our judgement, and of tracing the connexion between the appearances of the present times and the probable improvement in the situation of mankind in future periods. If we be not so impressed with the actual state of affairs as to expect so speedy a crisis as the author, and be tempted to believe that it will not be attended with such grievous calamities as he apprehends, we are no less persuaded that such a crisis must arrive, and that the wisdom of God, in his conduct towards Jews, Gentiles, and Christians, will be made

manifest, when, the course of their multiplied errors being completed, they will all unite in a firm belief of the truths of the Gospel.

The work is divided into four chapters. In the first are accumulated the evidences for the future restoration of the Jews: in the second are described the probable events connected with this restoration, with conjectures on the quarter whence their deliverance may be expected to originate. Of these events, two appear to us to be very probable—the total overthrow of the fourth monarchy, or the entire destruction of the image seen by Daniel, and of the Turkish empire, or rather Mahometan principles. To the conjectures respecting the nations which are to contribute to the restoration of the Jews, whether Spain, France, or Great-Britain, we attribute very little weight; and they do not appear to us to be in the least strengthened by a late attempt to translate and interpret the eighteenth chapter of Isaiah. In the third chapter the future character of the Jews is considered, and the effects of it on the nations of the earth, which gives rise for the ingenuity of additional conjectures; but the truth of them we must leave to futurity to determine. The last chapter embraces a still wider field—the kingdom of God on earth, and the general conversion of mankind. These glorious themes cannot be too much the object of a Christian's contemplation; and we may form some estimate of our Scriptural faith by the manner in which we receive the strange notions embraced by many Christians, who, equally with infidels, are incredulous on the absolute conquest of virtue over vice, duty over sin, and the triumphant reign of the saints on earth.

The state of the present times has naturally too great an influence to permit us perhaps to determine impartially on the subjects of such a work as the present; yet the study of them cannot be too much encouraged, if they lead us to a fuller conviction of God's moral government, and diminish our attention to the lower politics of individual kingdoms. If a writer—a man of piety and well read in the Scriptures—conceive that he sees reason for apprehending his nation is engaged in the support of a superstition doomed to destruction, and of countries which must eventually fall, we cannot condemn him for communicating those reasons in a serious and dispassionate manner, whether we agree with or differ from him in the interpretation of prophecy. His work may lead others to a more extensive view of the subject: and the clergy cannot be too much occupied in explaining the mysterious ways of Providence, and refuting whatever may be unfounded in the explanations of disputants who judge differently. The serious disposition of the present writer may be traced in the following extract,

'A persuasion, which the events of ten years have served to make invincible, has sunk deep into my mind, that an awful crisis is at hand, and that what we have seen is but the beginning of sorrows; that the wonderful occurrences of the present moment, so little expected a few weeks ago, are pregnant with others still more astonishing; and that, however unconscious the principal actors in the great drama may be, of the parts which they are acting in the tragic accomplishment of the awful decrees of heaven, yet they are fulfilling

" the determinate counsel of God" in bringing about the execution of the judgments which he hath prepared. This is my apology, if an apology be thought necessary for this publication of my thoughts. Others may think that such discussions " ought to be discouraged;" and that, " from the prophetical books, to which the extraordinary events now passing on earth naturally turn the attention of every religious mind, no expectation"—(as to the unfulfilled prophecies drawing to a speedy completion)—" can reasonably be drawn." Every man (unless we have lost all our liberties, and no one may speak or write any thing but what favours the continuance of the present destructive measures) has a right, modestly, to declare his own opinion; and I freely confess that mine is very opposite to the above, and that I think such discussions ought to be encouraged and pursued, and that much, as to the general outline of things, may be learnt from the prophecies,—and even courtiers thought so a few years ago, when the subject made in their favour. I think the most attentive research ought to be made, at this time of fearful expectation, especially into this part of sacred writ, and that an alarm ought to be sounded in every ear,—that the neglect of our clergy, particularly on this head, and the attempts which are made to excite prejudice against such subjects, and thus divert the public attention from them, is one of the most fatal " signs of the times;" and what operates to harden the nation in impenitence, and to give additional strength to that dangerous infatuation which has seised the public mind—a blind and furious infatuation, that threatens us with speedy ruin. If I err, either in the sentiments which I entertain, or in the attempts which I make to draw the attention of my countrymen to these subjects, I am sure my error is innocent, because I am certain my inquiries are sincere, and my motives and intentions pure. If reproached, I cannot blush; if persecuted, I cannot be afraid. But a few words shall suffice for this conclusion. However defective the execution of what has been undertaken in the foregoing pages may be, the subject most certainly is of serious importance. That the prophecies, if we have formed right notions of them, look with a very unfavorable aspect on the cause we are engaged in, is acknowledged; but, though we were to shut our eyes against them, this would not make our case the better; and it is possible that some good might be derived, would we come to the light, that our deeds might be reproved. The hope of this good, however distant and faint, is enough to induce every lover of mankind to venture much to do all he can to effect it.

' But let us remember, it does not follow, because our cause may be bad, that therefore that of our enemy is altogether good. By no means. The crimes which have been committed are without a parallel, and cannot go unpunished. All that the author wishes to impress upon the reader's mind is, that there is reason to conclude, both from prophecy and the appearance of things, that God, in his mysterious providence, is employing the French (be they deists or atheists, or whatever they may) as instruments to scourge the nations for their sins, and particularly to inflict his decisive judgements on anti-christian and Mahometan oppressors;—that on our part, as Christians and Protestants, it would have been wise and

right to have done every thing possible to have avoided becoming parties in the present horrible conflict; that we have committed a fatal error in linking ourselves with those whom our common religion has taught us to consider as devoted to destruction; and that therefore no time should be lost in endeavouring to escape the danger we have brought ourselves into—a danger which, however things might seem at first, or however they may now appear to some, becomes, in the opinion of many, more and more threatening at every step we advance.' P. 112.

ART. 26.—*An Apology for the Sabbath. By John Prior Estlin.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Johnson. 1801.

The puritanical observance of the sabbath which has long particularly marked some of the sectaries in this country, excited among others a more rigid inquiry into the nature of the day; and, offended with the pharisaic scruples of the former, many of the latter ran into the contrary extreme, and either perverted the institution by appropriating it entirely to their pleasure, or, calling in question its utility as a period of public devotion, made no distinction at all between this and the other days of the week. Admirably useful, during the existence of this contest between opinions, is the sermon before us; it is addressed to the understanding; and the evidence which the subject requires is stated in the clearest and most dispassionate manner. This will be conspicuous from the concessions made by the preacher in the commencement of his discourse.

'To prevent mistakes, I set out with allowing, in the most explicit manner, that the law of the Jewish sabbath is a law to the Jews only. I likewise grant that the practice now under consideration has not the sanction of any express precept of the New Testament. Whether there are not other grounds of obligation, is a point which remains to be considered. Let truth prevail on whichever side it lies—"I speak as unto wise men; judge ye what I say." P. 5.

The main argument for the observance of the sabbath is 'its utility, and indeed absolute necessity.' It is probable that it made a part of the patriarchal religion, and that the day which is now selected is the same which the patriarchs observed. This topic of time is well insisted upon, as it obviates the arguments used by those who call in question the Christian institution, on the ground of its nonconformity with the Jewish. The opinions of Selden, Limborch, &c. with their followers, Paley, Geddes, Evanson, are fully stated, and left to the judgement of the reader; and it may be thought by some that too great concession is made in allowing part of the sabbath to be employed, in case of necessity, in the works of the harvest. The whole question, however, evidently reposes upon the first chapter of Genesis, which is confirmed by the practice of Christians from the earliest periods; and no one who seriously reflects upon the present state of the world, the ignorance of the multitude, and the indifference of the higher classes to religious concerns, could wish for any innovation on so excellent an institution, even if it had not the sanction of divine authority.

'Rest, particularly to brute animals, which in this country are treated by many with disgraceful cruelty, and by most with a less degree of attention than is due to creatures who are susceptible of pleasure and pain, and to whose services we are so much indebted; rest, comfort, and moral improvement, to servants; the constant worship of Almighty God; reading the Scriptures and books of moral instruction; partaking of the Lord's supper; the cultivation of every excellent disposition; and, above all, love to God, and love to man;—these are the peculiar duties of the sabbath. Let us, my friends, practise them with undivided attention, with minds tuned to the employment, until we have learned to make every day a sabbath,—and then we shall not easily be induced to neglect them,—and until we are qualified for that eternal sabbath which we hope to enjoy in the more immediate presence of God himself, with Jesus Christ, with saints and angels, and with the spirits of the just made perfect.' P. 47.

This discourse deserves to be put into the hands of all those, who, though they still retain a veneration for Christianity, are in danger of falling into the coldness of fashionable indifference, and who, if they neglect the means afforded them once a week, of cultivating an acquaintance with their own minds and their higher concerns, will soon be totally absorbed in the frivolity or traffic of the age, and become the mere drudges of pleasure or of Mammon.

ART. 27.—*A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew by the Wardrobe and St. Anne, Blackfriars, on Tuesday in Whitsun-Week, May 26, 1801, before the Society for Missions to Africa and the East, instituted by Members of the established Church, being their first Anniversary. By the Rev. Thomas Scott.—Also the Report of the Committee to the Annual Meeting, held on the same Day; and a List of Subscribers and Benefactors. To which is prefixed an Account of the Society. Printed by Order of the general Meeting.* 8vo. 2s. Seeley. 1801.

Far be it from us to propose the least obstacle to the excellent object which this sermon has in view—the promotion of religious knowledge among the heathens. It is on the contrary with the greatest pleasure we perceive a society is formed for sending missionaries for this purpose to remote corners of the earth, now sitting in darkness and the shadow of death. The society is said to be instituted by members of the established church, and we wish that their number may be increased; yet upon looking at a list of their names, it evidently appears that it has taken its rise from the evangelical or methodistical party; and on this account a degree of watchfulness is necessary, lest, in the midst of zeal to promote the general truths of Christianity, the discipline of the church should be forgotten, or very imperfectly regarded. To give a missionary episcopal ordination with reference to the heathens only, is impossible; and as clergymen are not easily to be found to venture upon such expeditions, the society has devised a mode of supplying that defect, by bestowing on its missionaries the powers only of an instructor, or, as they choose to term it, a catechist. Hence the missionary may

instruct, but he must not baptise or administer the Lord's supper: but when a congregation is formed, a minister is to be appointed, with proper powers from the bishop. Of this regulation we cannot fail to approve; but we could have wished that a farther security had been given to the church, by providing that no one should be sent as a missionary whose testimonials, signed by two or three clergymen, had not been inspected and confirmed by the bishop of London. Besides the exodus of missionaries, it is an object of the society to translate the Scriptures into the languages of various countries where they are not yet known, and to disperse translations of the Scriptures in those countries where Christianity has not hitherto been acknowledged. These intentions of the society are well inforced by the preacher; and the report, together with the appendixes—the one by Mr. Carlyle recommending an Arabic edition of the Scriptures, the other by Mr. Mosely on printing them in Chinese and circulating them through Asia—deserves the attention of every serious Christian.

LAW.

ART. 28.—*Collectanea Maritima; being a Collection of public Instruments, &c. &c. tending to illustrate the History and Practice of Prize Law. By Chr. Robinson, LL.D.* 8vo. 3s. *sewed.* Butterworth. 1801.

These documents, which are to be continued, show that the right of search has been acknowledged, and made part of the naval œconomy, of the last three centuries. The present treaty of peace will place this right, most probably, on a better footing than it has hitherto stood; for as to the fling at 'the trimness of modern theories,' we cannot see why men in these days are not as well qualified to understand and settle this subject as the persons who drew up the documents anterior to us. The technical man of law is generally however tied down to musty rolls of parchment, and detests every thing that alters the practice to which he has been accustomed. If a thing happen to have been done a hundred years ago, with him it must be wise, and every modern improvement is folly; yet men will speculate and improve, because the acts of their ancestors, which might in their time have been founded on consummate wisdom, cease in the course of ages to be practical or beneficial. We shall be happy to see the right of search restricted to those warlike stores only which shall be specified between the parties; and if privateering should hereafter be considered as piracy, mankind will be benefited, though Doctors' Commons should suffer by the new theory.

ART. 29.—*Inquiries into the Nature of Leasehold Property; in which the relative Situations of Lessor and Lessee, Landlord and Tenant, are fairly considered. By a Gentleman of the Temple.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1801.

The writer wishes that the 'subject had fallen into better hands, as the importance of it well deserved.' Our wishes coincide with his own. He seems not to be sufficiently aware of the nature of leases.

When the property is vested in the landlord, it cannot be doubted that another person has no right to occupy it; and if he will purchase the permission of occupying it, the terms must depend on the proprietor, and the lease is a simple contract, as in the case of any other bargain of hire. The endeavour to give a lessee, in church, or college, or hospital, or corporation, any sort of property-right in the soil, and to limit the proprietor's power in setting the fine of renewal, is too absurd to be admitted for a moment. The lessee, in this species of property, has generally his right in it subjected to the covenants in the lease or contract for twenty-one years, if land—forty years, if houses. At the expiration of this term he has no right to complain on dismissal: and this cannot take place by surprise, for at the end of the first seven years he must expect it, if his lease be not renewed; and the renewal of the lease is and ought to be solely in the breast of the landlord or proprietor.

ART. 30.—*Act of Grace, &c. explained to a Man of singular Character and Consequence, now a Prisoner in a County Gaol.* 8vo. 6d. Parsons. 1801.

From this work we learn that a great number of debtors in the Fleet prison have signed a petition to the king, praying that 'he would exert his royal interference, and induce the other two branches of the legislature to consent to their release.' Every humane man must lament the state of so many of his fellow-creatures who are more severely punished for misfortunes than others for real crimes; yet we would rather see their release effected by a total change in the laws respecting debtor and creditor, which, according to this work, evidently want revision, than by an act of royal favour. The whole question lies in a narrow compass. Is insolvency a crime, or not? If it be a crime, let it be examined by a grand and petit jury, and proper punishment be inflicted on the offender. If it be a misfortune only, what inhumanity as well as folly it is to preclude a man from the use of all his powers, and thus to aggravate his misfortunes! The present system offends against every dictate of sound sense, which prescribes proportion in the punishment of crimes; while in this case no proportion at all is observed. The fraudulent stand the best chance of escape; the honest and unfortunate see no end to their miseries. We recommend this pamphlet to both debtor and creditor.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

ART. 31.—*National Irrigation, or the various Methods of watering Meadows; affording Means to increase the Population, Wealth, and Revenue of the Kingdom, by an Agricultural, Commercial, and general Economy in the Use of Water. By William Tatham.* 8vo. 9s. *Boards.* Carpenter. 1801.

Though we do not greatly approve of our author's language, and in some instances doubt of the correctness of his views, yet his general principle deserves our commendation,—particularly his recommendation of uniting canals, with the projects of draining or

of irrigation. Our author, too, should have pointed out more distinctly what lands require irrigation, and what water is advantageous when conducted over lands. Every soil and every spring are by no means suitable. He has however collected much valuable information on the subject from the practice of different counties, particularly from that of Aberdeenshire, where barren heaths are said, by this method, to be converted into fertile fields.

The practice of irrigation, though long neglected, was very ancient, and is mentioned by various authors. Mr. Tatham has only given an imperfect sketch of its history. How could he have overlooked this common line? It may serve as a motto for his second edition:—

'Claudite jam rivos, pueri: sat prata biberunt.'

ART. 32.—*A Letter on the Drainage of the East, West, and Wildmore Fens: addressed to the Proprietors of Rights of Common on these Fens, and to the Proprietors of Estates in the North Marshes, in the County of Lincoln. By Thomas Stone, Land-Surveyor.* 8vo. 1s. Cawthorn.

We have lately had occasion to say much of Mr. Stone and this county. We have always thought him a man of abilities and judgement, and this letter tends rather to confirm than alter our opinion.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 33.—*Cases of Phthisis Pulmonalis, successfully treated upon the Tonic Plan; with introductory Observations. By Charles Pears, F.M.S. F.L.S. &c.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray *and* Highley. 1801.

Mr. Pears, evidently a young author, enters the lists with the first practitioners, and even with the experience of successive centuries. Wine, animal food, bitters, and tonics, are his remedies, with little discrimination of situation and circumstances. Like a sturdy Brunonian, he speaks with the utmost complacency of his own plans, and with little reserve of the conduct of others. Our faith and our temper have been lately put to severe trials. We began with doubt: farther inquiries changed those doubts into absolute disbelief; and the evidence on the contrary side became so strong, that, uncharitable as it may seem, we almost suspected that some authors courted popularity by strong assertions which they knew to be false. We recollected the strong sarcasm of Voltaire—*il ne le croit pas; il l'a seulement écrit*,—and were led to apply it to authors who publish, as cures, cases which, in the moment even of publication, terminated fatally; who publish other editions, and other cases, without noticing the events which invalidated the former evidence. Such *eagerness*—we could give it a harsher name—has greatly disgusted us, and must disgust the world, were it once known. Our present author does not come under these imputations. He is only sanguine and unexperienced; but he is much too confident; and, though some of our reflexions may seem severe, they are the milk of human kindness compared with his imputations.

ART. 34.—*An Essay on the Plague: also a Sketch of a Plan of internal Police, proposed as a Mean of preventing the spreading of the Plague, should it be introduced* (absit tamen) *into this Country. By William Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. and Physician to the Bath Hospital.* 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1801.

The essay before us contains a very judicious abstract of what has hitherto been written on the plague, and very salutary directions for avoiding infection. We should not add a syllable to a very general and unreserved commendation, were it not in defence of Dr. Cullen. Dr. Falconer observes some little disagreement in different parts of Dr. Cullen's directions respecting sweating in the plague and other eruptive fevers; but we know that he neither approved of warm regimen, nor of sweating, in the general acceptation of the term. He meant what Chenot calls *diapnoë*—a free *insensible* perspiration.

ART. 35.—*The Anatomist's Vade-Mecum; containing the Anatomy, Physiology, the morbid Appearances, &c. of the Human Body; the Art of making Preparations, &c. Fourth Edition, corrected and enlarged. By Robert Hooper, M.D. F.L.S.* 12mo. 7s. *Boards.* Murray *and* Highley. 1802.

We have noticed the former editions of this work with approbation, and find it gradually improving. We think it a valuable assistant; but in a future edition would recommend adding the chemical analysis of the different animal fluids.

ART. 36.—*Experiments and Observations on the Medicinal Waters of Hampstead and Kilburn. By John Bliss.* 8vo. 2s. *sewed.* Phillips. 1802.

These experiments are well conducted, and described with great propriety and judgement. The Hampstead water contains a small proportion of iron, and a somewhat larger one of sulphat of lime, with other salts of less importance. It acts as a tonic and a stimulant, but rather binds than loosens the intestinal discharge. The other, about two miles distant, is a saline and purgative water, and, as Mr. Bliss very properly suggests, will render, in proper proportions, the Hampstead water more efficacious.

EDUCATION.

ART. 37.—*Viridarium Latinum; ou, Récueil des Pensées et Bous-Mots les plus remarquables, tirés des plus illustres Orateurs, Poëtes, et autres Ecrivains, tant Grecs que Latins, traduits en Italien et en François, Article par Article, à Côté des Originaux: auquel on a ajouté une Collection Angloise de Maximes instructives et amusantes, extraites des Auteurs les plus célébres: le tout destiné à l'Avancement des jeunes Personnes qui étudient ces différentes Langues, ainsi qu'à l'Amusement des Personnes d'un Age mûr. Par Gaetano Ravizzotti, &c.* 8vo. 7s. *sewed.* Deboffe. 1801.

The Latin Parterre; or, a Collection of Sentiments, Bons-Mots, &c.

Mr. Ravizzotti has not, in our opinion, presented any thing to the world, in this collection, that will be at all likely to effect either of the purposes which he pretends by it; 'it will not help forward

such young persons as are studying the different languages; nor will it afford much amusement to persons more matured in age and knowledge.' Had a collection of the best bons-mots, happy thoughts, and judicious phrases, been made from different authors, whether Latin, French, or Italian, and presented to the public in the original idiom of each, such a work would have been an amusement for persons of mature age. Or, had the solecisms and peculiarities of one of these tongues been exemplified by comparisons with the other two, such a work might have afforded help and instruction to students. But neither of these advantages is attained in the volume before us.—We will present the reader with a couple of examples that he may judge for himself.

'CXVI.

'Bona existimatio pecuniis præstat.
La bonne réputation est préférable aux richesses.
Il buon nome è preferibile alle richezze.

'CXVII.

'Homini est propria veri inquisitio atque investigatio.
La recherche de la verité est le devoir propre de l'homme.
Di ricercare la verità è dover proprio dell' uomo.' P. 49.

Both of these Latin sentences are certainly true: but there is not a school-boy of ten years old who has not received the information already; nor is there any sort of dialectic knowledge gained by his reading them in the three versions; for the construction is so simple that he could not mistake it. A volume of old saws exhibited in one language, is, according to the present price of paper, a kind of extravagance; but two *literal* translations, added to it, render it extreme prodigality. The mode of the work throughout is the same as in the two examples which we have given; and few of the *pensées* and *bons mots* are more to the purpose.

ART. 38.—*Harry and Lucy. In Two Parts. Being the First and Second Parts of Early Lessons.*

ART. 39.—*Rosamond. In Three Parts. Being the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Parts of Early Lessons.*

ART. 40.—*Frank. In Four Parts. Being the Sixth, Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Parts of Early Lessons. By Maria Edgeworth.* 24mo. *6d. each Part.* Johnson. 1801.

We have often lamented that books composed for the use of children are filled with words far beyond their comprehension: it is therefore with much pleasure we notice an attempt to level instruction to capacity. In the first part of these works we rarely met with a word that would cause a child to stop for its explanation; and, in the latter volumes, if hard words do sometimes occur, yet they are by no means so plentiful as in the generality of books of this kind; and frequently the author is very careful to explain them. The lessons are easy and intelligible; they contain little incidents in common life, calculated to excite the curiosity of children, and to afford them considerable instruction. A child of nine or ten years old, and under,

who is left to read these books by himself, and afterwards asked easy questions on their contents, with references to the page for the proof of what is asserted, will be led by degrees to what Miss Edgeworth evidently wishes to fix in the young rational mind—a habit of *thinking*, instead of (as is the case in too many schools) a knack of gabbling a parcel of words by rote, which tend to no good purpose, and which have but one fortunate circumstance attending them—that they are soon again forgotten.

ART. 41.—*Three Stories for young Children. By Maria Edgeworth.* 24*mo.* 6*d.* Johnson. 1802.

These little stories are by the same author as the foregoing articles, and are executed in the same profitable manner.

ART. 42.—*Moral Tales; designed to amuse the Fancy and improve the Hearts of the rising Generation. By the Rev. Edmund Butcher. To which is added, by a Lady, The Unhappy Family, or the dreadful Effects of Vice. A Tale.* 12*mo.* 2*s. Boards.* Vernor *and* Hood. 1801.

Mr. Butcher has here produced two pretty little stories for the use of children. Henry's residence on the uninhabited island is too much a copy of Robinson Crusoe; and it is not likely that bread, an axe, and just such other things as were immediately useful, should be the only articles cast on shore from a wreck;—but upon the whole the tales are both instructive and entertaining. The lady makes us laugh in her story, by recovering a person from insensibility with *narcotics*. This female physician surely could not know that narcotic signifies *stupefying*.

POETRY.

ART. 43.—*Lines on the Death of the late Sir Ralph Abercromby. By the Author of the Conspiracy of Gowrie.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Bell. 1801.

'Shades of the brave, firm honour's martial train,
On Asia's neighbour strand in conflict slain;
Who sought of yore on Faith's strong wing to rise,
And buy with life the mercies of the skies;
Shades of the brave, whom English Richard led
Where war its hallow'd devastation spread,
For whom the minstrel, bard of the olden time,
In many a banner'd hall awoke the rhyme;
Who, whilst the vanquish'd crescent trail'd the ground,
And exultation pausing ceas'd to sound,—
Still true to nature, passion'd as you were,
Pour'd forth on bended knee the sainted tear:
If e'er 'tis yours to leave the seats above
And visit once again with holy love
The scenes where first you drank the light on earth,
Or where you, dying, met your second birth;
If e'er 'tis yours, with more enlighten'd aim
To scan the thoughts that stirr'd your mortal frame,—

Hither, tho' now, perchance, decreed to feel
With pow'r enlarg'd the *universal* weal,—
Hither, still mindful of the dubious strife,
That form'd the troublous cares that fever life;
Where Abercromby fell, O! haste to meet,
And with a general hail his spirit greet!
'Well, well ye know, that never nobler heart
Impell'd the warrior to his destin'd part,—
That England's safety cheer'd his parting breath,
That England's good was paramount in death.
'And sure, if admiration still rehearse
Your waste of valour in undying verse;
If truth for you, reluctant as she may,
Still own sincere the fire that led astray;
If meek religion, though she mourns to hear,
Embalm your memories with a pitying tear;
For *him*, unmix'd the stream of praise shall rise,
Spread wide on earth, and hallow'd in the skies!' P. 9.

These lines are evidently produced by a writer of more than common powers: but the poem, from its brevity, is more adapted for a news-paper or magazine than for separate publication.

We cannot but remark the adulatory dedications that disgrace the present and former production of this author.

ART. 44.—*Ode to the Memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby, and the glorious 21st of March*, 1801. *By Anthony Todd Thomson.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Trepass. 1801.

Sterling poetry, like sterling cash, is not always to be had on demand. Upon these temporary subjects better lines can hardly be expected than the following.

'Where the red sun with solemn march
Adown the western steep descends,
O'erspreads with fire the azure arch,
Lo! a troop of warriors bends:
Inhabitants of brighter climes!
Souls of the brave in battle slain!
Your splendent deeds thro' unborn times
Shall roll, and still new lustre gain!
Behold! behold! each waves his hand,
Welcomes the soul that wings his flight
To regions of empyrean light,
A partner of their blissful band:
And, while they swell the choral lay,
In celestial accents say—
Ah! why is heard the voice of woe?
Why is dropp'd the pitying tear?
Bedeck not with the cypress bough
The hoary victor's honour'd bier:
He needs no tear, in Honour's arms who dies,
Nor Sorrow's sable train to grace his obsequies.' P. 9.

The pamphlet concludes with two of the worst rhymes we have ever seen.

'Stranger! exultest thou in joyous youth,
Go—emulate an Abercromby's worth.'

ART. 45.—*Ocean: a Poem, in Two Parts. By Mason Chamberlin,* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Clarke. 1801.

If we examine this poem by the rules of Horace, and transpose the words, we shall make it *sermo merus*; as we have fully experienced by *transposing*, as Bayes says, different passages. The prose however is neat and pleasing. The picture of the fisherman was never a portrait; for different are the manners of these rough sons of Neptune; and the descriptions are in general neither animated nor picturesque.

ART. 46.—*Carminum rariorum Macaronicorum Delectus, in Usum Ludorum. Fasciculus Primus.* 1801.

Macaronic poetry soon loses its relish; but we find in this collection entertainment of a superior kind. The first only is a macaronic poem—the 'Dunghill Battle between Lady *Scotstarvet* and Lady Newbaras,' written by William Drummond early in the seventeenth century. The manners of this period are antiquated, and the humor to us at least somewhat obsolete. The second is a very classical and almost literal translation of Christ's Kirk on the Green, in Latin hexameter and pentameter; and the third, a humorous version of the contest between Ajax and Ulysses. Of course, the latter appears in a ludicrous garb, and not very unlike Cotton's Travesty of Homer. These two last poems possess much merit in their different lines, and will be highly entertaining to those acquainted with the Scottish dialect.—The *Ludi Apollinares* allude, if we mistake not, to the Golf club on the Links of Leith.

ART. 47.—*The Sacred Meditations of John Gerhard, translated into Blank Verse. By W. Papillon, Clerk, M.A. &c.* 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Egerton. 1801.

That poetry is too often made subservient to very bad purposes, must be lamented by every Christian; and that it may be advantageously employed in the holiest exercises, the Scriptures abundantly testify: yet this attempt to make it more profitable will by no means answer the writer's laudable expectations; and he is equally unfortunate in the choice of his model, and the dress in which he has clothed the theologian in our language. It is German divinity in blank verse, or rather prose numbered by syllables.

ART. 48.—*The Sorrows of Love; a Poem. In Three Books.* 8*vo.* 4*s. Boards.* 1801.

Of this author we can only say, that he writes smooth verses, and understands Persian.

ART. 49.—*Alfonso, King of Castile: a Tragedy, in Five Acts. By M. G. Lewis.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bell. 1801.

With no inconsiderable portion of modesty Mr. Lewis offers this piece to the public,—'not as a good play,' says he, 'but as the best that I can produce. Very possibly no body could write a worse tragedy; but it is a melancholy truth that I cannot write a better.' P. iv.

In regard to the plot, we have assuredly no right to examine it by the light of history, because the author candidly confesses that he has departed from it. He has however, we must acknowledge, not diminished the interest which the reader feels in the fate of his characters. The versification is in general bold and spirited, but the thoughts are frequently too high-flown and overstrained. The course of Mr. Lewis's reading may be traced in this, as well as his other works: all his passions are expressed in ungovernable language; and the wild impetuosity of Schiller and the German dramatists is visible in every page. It appears as if the author were laying great violence on his inclinations in keeping the ghosts off the stage in the fourth and fifth acts, for he cannot forbear making them visible to Ottilia and Amelrosa. We beg leave to congratulate him on this victory over his prejudices; and to remind him, that true fame consists in the approbation of the discerning few, not in the shouts of the vulgar.

——————————— Eripe turpi
Colla jugo. Liber, liber sum, dic! age.—— HORACE.

ART. 50.—*Holiday Time; or, the School-boy's Frolic: a Farce in Two Acts. As performed by his Majesty's Servants of the Theatre-Royal Norwich, with universal Applause. By Francis Lathom.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman *and* Rees.

The mind of Mr. Lathom may be perceived here, as in other works, to be capable of considerable invention; but this farce is not of consequence enough to merit much investigation. Although it be not in our power to bestow upon it any great share of praise; yet, to use his own words, he shall not in us 'meet with critics sufficiently sour to frown upon a School-boy's Frolic.'

NOVELS.

ART. 51.—*Letitia; or, the Castle without a Spectre. By Mrs. Hunter of Norwich.* 4 *Vols.* 12mo. 1*l.* 1s. *Boards.* Longman *and* Rees. 1801.

A fitter title for this work would have been 'The Letitias,' for it is the history of three—the grandmother, mother, and daughter. Miss Letitia Dashmore marries Mr. Marchmount; their daughter Letitia marries Mr. Rushwood; and, again, their daughter Letitia marries Alfred Langstone. The first of these ladies is but seventeen when her story commences, and the novel is not concluded till the last has presented her husband with two boys. It is a pity that Mrs. Hunter did not make one of them a girl, and then she might have gone on with the history of Letitia *ad infinitum*. The work

however is not destitute of merit; but the continuation 'from generation to generation' cannot fail to tire a reader's patience.

ART. 52.—*Helen of Glenross; a Novel. By the Author of Historic Tales.* 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 16*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

The author of the volumes before us is of the *penseroso* school. The tale does not end, like the generality of novels, in a happy wedding, but in the death of those who had married unhappily.

'In the common tales of devoted beauty, a delicate mind finds so little sympathy, that it hardly serves for warning against errors too broad to require much caution to avoid. But the purest may sympathise in Helen's fate—may learn diffidence from her story, and be convinced it is easier to avoid imprudence, than to prevent or remedy the evils that follow it.' Vol. iv. p. 264.

The story is an interesting one, and the incidents are pathetic. The writer also evinces some poetical merit in the ballad style, by a reverie on the daisy, in the second volume.

ART. 53.—*Ariel; or the Invisible Monitor. In Four Volumes.* 12*mo.* 18*s. sewed.* Lane. 1801.

There is a peculiar cast of character assigned to one of the personages in this novel, which, although extravagant, will gain it the favour of the fair, and which is indeed a much more pleasant piece of machinery than ghosts and goblins—the attendance of the chevalier St. Alvars upon Rosaline in the guise of an aërial spirit. Notwithstanding that this circumstance is a little too fanciful, we cannot refuse our approbation to the work in general. The incidents are such as to interest the reader continually; and the fortitude of the heroine is dignified and constant. We were sorry, however, to see that Sir Walter's conduct did not rise equally high with her own; for Adolphus's head might have been turned by anxiety, and Rosaline's heart broken by grief, had not the baronet's folly been gratified by her proving in the end a sprig of nobility.

ART. 54.—*The History of Netterville, a Chance Pedestrian; a Novel.* 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 8*s. Boards.* Crosby *and* Co. 1802.

We cannot say much in favour of these volumes. The catastrophe is not badly brought about: but there is hardly an event or an expression in the work that may not be met with in former works of this nature.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 55.—*An accurate and impartial Narrative of the Apprehension, Trial, and Execution on the 5th of June* 1798, *of Sir E. W. Crosbie, Bart.; including a Copy of the Minutes of the Proceedings of the Court-Martial which tried him; together with authentic Documents relating to the whole of his Conduct, and the Proceedings against him. Published, in Justice to his Memory, by his Family.* 8*vo.* 3*s.* Hatchard. 1801.

The family of the deceased publish these proceedings to vindicate

the memory of their relative; and, as far as we may credit the account—and we see no reason to doubt any part of it—Sir Edward suffered unmerited punishment. The publication is a very extraordinary one. Transactions are made known scarcely to be paralleled in the horrors of the French revolution; and we could not have believed it possible that a circumstance which lady Crosbie has established upon oath that she heard from the sufferers, and which they were ready to confirm on their affidavit, actually took place by the order of the president of the court-martial, if we had not heard an Irish gentleman of high rank vindicate the bloody, barbarous, and absurd mode of extorting evidence by the torture of flogging. It is said that, previous to the trial, two day-labourers, and the postillion of Sir E. Crosbie, were offered their choice—either to criminate the unfortunate baronet and be set free, or be flogged. They refused to criminate, as they said, an innocent man. They were then severely flogged, and questioned again; and persisting in the same conduct, the barbarous order was issued—Lay on the rascals fifty more! It is to be hoped that due inquiry will be made into the conduct of the late courts-martial in Ireland; from which, we presume, it will appear, that if there ever be a necessity for their use, except in the army, they are at least totally disqualified to judge in civil transactions; and no circumstances whatsoever can require the adoption of them, if the trial be to last, as in this instance, more than a day.

ART. 56.—*A Narrative of the Life of Sarah Shade, born at Stoke Edith in the County of Hereford; containing many well-authenticated and curious Facts, more particularly during her Voyage to the East Indies, in the New Devonshire Indiaman, in the Year* 1769, *and in traversing that Country in company with the Army, at the Sieges of Pondicherry, Velore, Negapatam, &c. &c. Together with some extraordinary Accounts of the Ferocity of Tigers, Jackals, Piah Dogs, Vultures, &c. Taken down by some Gentlemen, and published for her Benefit.* 8vo. 2*s.* Hatchard. 1801.

Sarah Shade, now living at N° 5, Little Chesterfield-street, Mary-le-bone, the subject of this Narrative, has gone through many very strange adventures, which are recorded in this work. Some of them border so nearly on the incredible, that we might be almost justified in withholding our assent from them till a more exact inquiry into the truth has been instituted; but the number of names mentioned in the work, of persons, many of whom must now be living, lead us to believe that there is sufficient evidence for the chief part of the history. We are the more inclined to place a reliance on the credibility of the publishers, as some facts relative to the tiger, inserted at the end of the narrative, have been related to us by other and most unquestionable testimony. As the Narrative is said to be published by some gentlemen for the benefit of the poor woman who has been such a sufferer, we have given the place of her abode, that the curiosity of some of our readers to hear from her own mouth her strange adventures may be gratified, and she may be assisted in return by their benevolence.

ART. 57.—*Hints for increasing the Splendor of Illuminations, securing the Pleasure of the Spectator, and the Convenience of the Householder; with some Remarks for the Prevention of Tumult and Disorder. Particularly adapted to the Illuminations expected to take Place on the Proclamation for Peace with the French Republic. By Photophilos.* 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1801.

There cannot be a more pleasing sight than a general illumination upon a cessation of war; and the benevolent author of this publication seems to be impressed with an idea which we should be glad to see realised, that an illumination may be made 'a heart-enlivening spectacle to all, both rich and poor.' For this purpose he has suggested several hints which merit the attention of the public. He considers the object, the restoration of peace, as worthy to be celebrated in the most solemn manner; he deprecates a state of war with a truly Christian spirit, and reprobates our perpetual interference in continental politics with the ability of a statesman. The attention of the police is called upon to prevent those scenes of riot and tumult which too frequently disgrace our streets; and it cannot be doubted that with very little effort the quiet of the metropolis might be preserved, and squibs, crackers, and the firing of blunderbusses, confined, as the author suggests they should be, within their proper limits. District committees are recommended for the purpose of illuminating objects best adapted to the occasion; and the housekeeper is instructed how to enrich, at very little expense or trouble, the brilliancy of the scene. The opulent are called upon to produce their statues and their vases, their chandeliers, and many other ornaments of their mansions—the tradesman to display in his drawing-room the best productions of his art or manufacture. The vulgar are not forgotten; and proper places for their bonfires and more clamorous diversions are pointed out. The pamphlet is worthy the perusal of such public-spirited men as would wish to see the metropolis gratified by a spectacle in which elegance and magnificence may be combined at the smallest expense; and the hints suggested to housekeepers may afford the younger branches of their families opportunities of displaying their taste, as well as much innocent and useful amusement.

ART. 58.—*Analytical Hints relative to the Process of Ackerman, Suardy, and Co.'s Manufactories for Water-proof Cloths, and Wearing Apparel, at Belgrave-Place, Chelsea, and at Messrs. Douglass and Co.'s Manufactory, Cuper's Bridge, Lambeth.* 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1801.

We have reviewed this subject in many a heavy shower, and, on the whole, think well of the invention. We have seen the rain stand in pools on the skirts of the coat thrown over the saddle, but we have also found it penetrate: it is not, however, an objection to a valuable invention that it is not infallible. The method is highly ingenious: it renders a light flexible cloth capable of resisting very heavy showers; nor is it, as the patentees observe in their very candid defence now before us, warmer than other cloth, by confining the perspiration. Let us however advise them not to remit in their attention to the manufacture: from some complaints, we are led to suspect that it is sometimes unequally prepared.

ART. 59.—*Animadversions on Dr. Dickson's Translation of Reflexions on the Theory of the Infinitesimal Calculus (the Doctrine of Fluxions). From the French of C. Carnot. By Henry Clarke.* 8vo. 6d. Hurst. 1801.

The translator of Carnot has, it seems, fallen into an error in the transformation of an equation, which has procured for him some very pert and, we may add, illiberal insinuations from the writer. The equation is,

$$\text{`}\frac{TP+T'T}{y}=\frac{2y+RZ}{2a-2x-MZ};\text{'}$$

which Carnot transformed very properly into

$$\text{`}\frac{TP}{y}-\frac{y}{a-x}+\frac{T'T}{y}-\frac{yMz+aRZ-xRZ}{a-x\times 2a-2x-MZ}=0.\text{'}$$

This is shown to have been rightly done by our author; namely, by multiplying the numerator and denominator of $\frac{2y+Rx}{2a-2x-Mx}$ into $a-x$; whence we have

$\frac{2y\times a-x+aRz-xRz}{a-x\times 2a-2x-Mz}$; but $\frac{2y\times a-x}{a-x\times 2a-2x-Mz}$ is the same as $\frac{y}{a-x}+\frac{yMz}{a-x\times 2a-2x-MZ}$, and whence Carnot's transformation is justified. Having settled this point, our author gives the translator a lesson on the subtraction of algebraïcal quantities, which, he says, 'will be evident to every one who can conceive that a negative quantity subtracted is in effect an affirmative one added.' We see no difficulty in the subtraction of the terms; but an author who could write the sentence we have just quoted might have had more compassion for the translator, notwithstanding his error. We set his nonsense on the subtraction of a negative quantity against the translator's mistakes; and the two mathematicians will now, we hope, shake hands and be friends;—at the same time we are persuaded that the translator will avail himself of the remarks of this writer on the first opportunity.

ART. 60.—*The Case of the Farmers; with an Appendix, and a Dedication to the Board of Agriculture; and an Address to all present and future Writers on Agriculture. By a Hertfordshire Farmer.* 8vo. 1s. Badcock. 1801.

A strong remonstrance in favour of farmers, but in a much superior style. The object is to lengthen in general the period of leases: and this period is by no means an improper or an unreasonable one, viz. nineteen or twenty years. Our experience differs, however, from the author's. We have not known any profession in which fortunes have been more certainly acquired. We call it a profession; for the farmer must be *regularly bred*, and continue to superintend every part, or we fear that fortune will be, as usual, fickle. If the landlord look forward to the improvement of his estate, he will not find our farmer's requisition improper.

ART. 61.—*A Guide to Madeira; containing a short Account of Funchall, with Instructions to such as repair to that Island for Health.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Longman *and* Rees. 1801.

Madeira was a desirable retreat for the invalid while other parts of the continent were precluded; but we know no reason why it should not supersede the more celebrated spots, for it seems to have almost every requisite for health, except some little comforts in the lodgings, which we have reason to think will soon be supplied. This Guide will afford very important assistance; and, if the advantages of climate, &c. are not exaggerated, and we have no reason to think that they are so, Madeira seems to afford a very salutary retreat.

ART. 62.—*Melancholy; as it proceeds from the Disposition and Habit, the Passion of Love, and the Influence of Religion. Drawn chiefly from the celebrated Work entitled 'Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy;' and in which the Kinds, Causes, Consequences, and Cures of this English Malady*

'——— are traced from within
Its inmost Centre to its outmost Skin.'

12*mo.* 5*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Vernor *and* Hood. 1801.

This is a first-rate man-of-war cut down to a cock-boat, by omitting the useless digressions, and curtailing a little of the gossiping language. The whole is newly cast; but, though the present work is of a more modern architecture, we own that we prefer the Gothic, with all its faults and inconveniences. A well-executed frontispiece faces the title; but it is unpleasing in the expression, and so *faithful* as to excite the most painful sensations.

ART. 63.—*Practical Observations on Angling in the River Trent. By a Gentleman resident in the Neighbourhood.* 12*mo.* 3*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

These remarks are adapted chiefly to the Trent: but the greater number will admit of a more extensive application. They are very minute, perspicuous, and, on the whole, will probably be found useful.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE are obliged to Mr. Morrice for his good opinion, and glad that his inquiries respecting the universities have led him to retract his general censure of them for inattention to the truths of religion: at the same time we must beg him to pursue his researches still farther; and he will find that in both universities there are *collegiate* as well as *public* lectures on the truths of religion.

THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1802.

ART. I.—*Alfred; an Epic Poem, in Six Books. By Henry James Pye.* 4*to.* 1*l.* 5*s. Boards.* Wright. 1801.

NOT many months have elapsed since we had occasion to express our opinion, that some parts of the transactions of Alfred afford a happy subject for the epic muse; and, from a note which occurs in p. 239 of the work before us, we learn that Milton was of the same opinion: 'A heroïcal poem,' says he, 'may be founded somewhere in Alfred's reign, especially at his issuing out of Eddington on the Danes.'—If it be remarkable therefore that two contemporary bards, without any apparent communication with each other, should at length have embraced the same subject for an epic poem, it is perhaps still more remarkable that so fruitful and patriotic a theme should have remained unsung for so many centuries.

Mr. Pye's poem opens with the arrival of a stranger in the court of Gregor king of Caledonia, who is hospitably entertained, while the secret grief under which he seems to labour is soothed by the minstrelsy of the bards. The musicians adverting, in the course of their songs, to the fate of Oscar and Malvina, the stranger is affected with still deeper sorrow; and his distress is thus described with true poetic dignity.

'Here passion's torrent swell'd the stranger's breast,
And all the man of sorrow stood confess'd;
Across his face his robe he drew, to hide,
Of gushing tears, the involuntary tide;
Attentive, Gregor mark'd his struggling pain,
And still'd, with hasty voice, the plaintive strain.

"In vain, O King," the mournful warrior said,
"To me, is pity's generous tribute paid.—
It, while thy tuneful bards, in lofty lays,
Sung Caledonia's woes in earlier days;
If, whi. of chiefs they sung, who erst defied,
In many field, the Roman tyrant's pride,
Struck by t.. verse, thou and thy princely peers
Pour'd to the rain the heartfelt praise of tears;

O think what pangs of grief this heart must know,
What tears of sorrow from these eyes must flow,
Which recent and tremendous scenes have view'd,
Of public rapine, and of kindred blood;
Seen Desolation stalk with demon-form,
O'er Albion's fields, and swell th' ensanguined storm;
Seen, while her bravest warriors died in vain,
Barbarian victors waste her fair domain,
While Treachery gored, with parricidal hand,
The bleeding bosom of its native land;
Seen each endearing charity of life,
A smiling infant, and a blooming wife,
Torn from these arms, stretch'd to protect, in vain,
Their helpless virtues from a lawless train.—
Forgive these sighs from homebred anguish grown,
Amid my people's wrongs I feel my own.
He vainly boasts a patriot's grief to know,
Whose tears for kindred sufferings never flow.
No!—though my country's wrongs, with venom'd dart,
Strike keenest tortures through this wounded heart;
Still must my bosom feel for ties more near,
Still must Elsitha claim her Alfred's tear." P. 13.

The Caledonian monarch being thus apprised of the name and quality of his illustrious guest, proceeds to inquire into the late events of the contest between the Saxons and the Danes; which gives occasion to Alfred to relate the outline of his own history, bringing it down to the conclusion of the fatal battle of Wilton. Being defeated in this battle in consequence of the treachery of Ceolph, he had been compelled to wander through Britain an outcast and a fugitive, not only deprived of his kingly honours, but separated from his beloved consort Elsitha, whom he thus apostrophises at the close of the first book.

"Elsitha! lovely consort of my heart!
From thee, from all I value, doom'd to part,
Uncertain of thy fate, while thought forbears
To image half the horrors that it fears,
Awhile with desultory pace I stray,
Fix'd to no point, as Chance directs my way.
My southward course the unbridled rage of war,
And barbarous foes, and faithless vassals, bar.
O'er many a blasted heath and mountain drear
Wandering, behold the wretched Alfred here!
I come to Caledonia's kindred plains,
Where generous Pity dwells, for Gregor reigns,
Secure to find, in his high-trophied walls,
Heroes to fly where suffering Virtue calls." P. 36.

The recital made by Alfred of his own sufferings and of the misfortunes of his subjects, kindles a virtuous ardour in the

heart of Donald the son of Gregor, to march at the head of a body of Scottish troops to the succour of the English king. To this request Gregor assents, and the Caledonian warriors are summoned to accompany their prince on this generous expedition. They embark at Solway Frith; and we shall quote, as a happy specimen of Mr. Pye's descriptive powers, the following narration of their voyage.

'Soon to blue air melts Scotia's southmost height,
And rise Ierne's mountains to the sight;
Swiftly they pass the stormy seas that roar
Incessant round Menavia's lonely shore,
Till full in sight the rocky point appears;
Her lofty brow where hallow'd Mona rears,
And hoary Conway, famed in Druid lore,
Pours his hoarse flood from Arvon's craggy shore.

'As now by Cambria's western point they keep,
Where from Dimeta's turrets on the deep,
Low in the western wave Sol sunk his head,
Painting his radiant couch with fiery red,
Omen of future tempest,—O'er the deep
The brooding winds in sullen silence sleep;
Around the yard the loose sail flagging plays,
No more the bark the pilot's hand obeys.—
Short, and insidious calm—the flitting breeze,
First, desultory, lifts the sparkling seas;—
Then louder swells the blast,—against the shore
Dreadful, and near, the frothy breakers roar:
And, o'er the sable veil of murky night,
Incessant flashes shed terrific light.
Useless the oar, and dangerous now the sail,
The giddy vessels drive before the gale;
Part on the sea's tempestuous bosom toss'd,
Part forced disastrous on the rocky coast.' P. 52.

By the fury of the storm the ship of Alfred is wrecked, and he alone of all the crew is saved from the overwhelming billows. Having climbed to the summit of the rocky shore, he fixed an anxious eye on the ocean,—

'Nor saw one wreck of all the naval train
Amid the vast expanse of sky and main.' P. 56.

His hopes being thus extinguished, he turns his footsteps towards the interior of the country, and takes shelter in a cottage; in which retreat he passes many sorrowful days.

'His hours, employ'd in constant tales of woe,
Nor beam of hope, nor smile of solace know;
Still heaves his bosom with the heart-felt sigh,
Still patriot sorrow dims the monarch's eye.

Day after day fleets on in cheerless mood,
While, as the swain his sylvan toil pursued,
Sad o'er the hearth the pensive hero hung,
Fix'd his unweening eye, and mute his tongue,
Deeply intent on scenes of present woe,
Or planning future vengeance on the foe,
The objects round him, like the viewless air,
Pass o'er his mind, nor leave an image there;
Hence oft, with flippant tongue, the busy dame
The reckless stranger's apathy would blame,
Who, careless, let the flame those viands waste
His ready hunger ne'er refused to taste.
Ah! little deeming that her pensive guest,
High majesty, and higher worth, possess'd;
Or that her voice presumptuous dared to chide
Alfred, her country's sovereign, and its pride.' p. 62.

From this state of inactivity, however, the Saxon king is roused by the accidental arrival of Ethelwood, who informs him that, notwithstanding the greater part of his dominions are wasted by the Danish invader, Oddune earl of Devonshire still holds out, though besieged in Kenwith castle.

The cottager being apprised of the dignity of his guest, proposes to conduct Alfred to a place of greater safety—a marshy island situated at the confluence of the Thone and Parret. The offer is accepted; and the passage of the travelers, across the ford to this asylum, occupies the commencement of the third book. During his residence in the isle of Ethelny, Alfred, in the course of a lonely walk, traces the current of a rivulet, till he at length arrives at a cavern;—of which Mr. Pye gives the following elegant description.

'In foaming eddy, where the lucid tide
Pours headlong down the high clift's rugged side,
A grove of dusky pines athwart the glade
Shoot, with projected limbs, a solemn shade;
And as aloft the quivering branches play,
Shut from the soil the garish eye of day.
Deep in the dark recess, with briars o'er-grown,
A cavern opens in the mossy stone:
O'er its dank mouth the flexile ivy grows,
Where an aged yew funereal shadows throws;
Scath'd oaks their knotty branches fling around,
With mystic misseltoe their summits crown'd;
While, echoing to the torrent's distant shock,
Howls the dread whirlwind through the creviced rock.—
Albeit unused to fear, the monarch's breast
Pants, with an awe, unfelt before, impress'd,
And, o'er his better reason, sudden spread
Terrific chills of superstitious dread.' p. 82.

This solemn preparation ushers to our view a druid, who, 'rapt into future times,' foretels to Alfred the fate of his posterity. In this narration it may easily be imagined that the laureat would not fail to introduce an eulogy on the reigning monarch.

'And see, best glory of that patriot race,
Her monarch, Briton-born, Britannia grace;
Loved, honour'd, and revered by all, save those
Who, foes to Freedom, to her friends are foes.
But foes in vain—for Anarchy's wild roar
Shall never shake this heaven-defended shore,
While Freedom's sons gird Freedom's sacred throne,
With loyal Faith's impenetrable zone.
O'er laurels Rome's sweet poet cull'd to grace
The mighty hero of the Julian race,
Shall rise the glory of his honour'd name,
"Nor oceans bound his sway, nor stars his fame."—
Ocean but rolls his azure waves to guide
His fleets to empire, o'er his ambient tide;
And far beyond the planets that appear
Circling, in ceaseless course, the earthly sphere,
Beyond the stretch of human eye-sight far,
Improving Science hails the Georgian star.' P. 98.

In the fourth book, the conference between Alfred and the bard is interrupted by the arrival of a Saxon, sent in quest of the king, and commissioned to communicate to him the joyful intelligence of the success of Oddune earl of Devon, against a Danish armament just arrived from Ireland. Alfred immediately hastens to the camp of Oddune, and is received with transport. After reviewing his forces, the monarch discloses to his counsellors his intention of visiting the Danish camp in the disguise of a minstrel, that he may become acquainted with the number and plans of the enemy.

To this camp, and in this disguise, he repairs.

'With joyful look the wary hero view'd
Stern Vigilance, by long success, subdued;
Saw daring Courage turn'd to frantic heat,
And Victory prepare her own defeat;
But, as along the noisy camp he pass'd,
Listening to Riot's roar in every blast,
Startled with horror and amaze, he hears
The whisper'd sound of "Alfred!" strike his ears.
Instant he turns, alarm'd—his warlike hand
The useless harp quits for the shining brand,
When thus the voice—"My king! my master! say,
What fiend has tempted here thy dangerous way,
'Mid scenes where ruthless Hate and envious Strife
Lurk, in dread ambush, for thy sacred life?

O, fly this fatal place, weak all disguise
To hide thy well-known form from Treason's eyes.
Many are here, like me, of Saxon race,
The servile ministers of foul Disgrace,
Prompt to betray, for Treachery's base reward,
That prince whose life my dying arm would guard.' P. 137.

This friendly monitor proves to be Edgar, to whose custody Alfred had entrusted Elsitha and his infant son. Edgar, notwithstanding his treasonable residence in the Danish camp, informs his sovereign of the retreat in which he had secured the queen: on which Alfred immediately returns to his troops, at the head of whom he hastens to the spot where she is secreted.

'With all their leader's wrongs enflamed, the band,
Elate in arms, a radiant phalanx stand.
By Edgar guided, through the waning night,
Through the first orient streaks of dawning light,
Onward they press,—but when the mounting ray
Profusely pour'd the golden flood of day,
Cautious, and wary, of the neighbouring foe,
Beneath the shade their wearied limbs they throw:
But soon as Eve distills her balmy dew,
Again the chiefs their silent march renew,
Till, urging on the sable noon of night,
As the bright stream reflects a feeble light,
On its green edge, by contrast dim, display'd,
The holy turrets rise in glimmering shade.—
Sudden they halt—when, with terrific clang
Of martial shouts, the echoing arches rang;
Blazes with sudden light the solemn pile,
And torches glide along each fretted ile.
With female shrieks the vaulted roofs resound,
By the loud bell's tremendous pealing drown'd.
The notes of horror strike the valiant train,
Thrill in their ears, and harrow every vein.
Not so their chief—at once his active mind,
In passion cool, each circumstance combined.—
That one neglected moment might destroy
The treasury of all his promised joy
He saw—and bade the clarion's warlike breath
Swell the vindictive strain of war and death;
Through every cell the martial thunder broke,
To each astonish'd Dane defiance spoke.' P. 142.

The Saxons rush on the invaders, and rescue Elsitha and her companions from the meditated insult. And here we cannot but observe, that the laureat would have excited a much more lively effect had he represented this happy interference as altogether a casual and unexpected incident. The effect we refer to is in some measure produced shortly afterwards, by

Alfred's joyful meeting with Donald and his Caledonian troops, whose apprehended destruction he had so feelingly deplored; and also by the discovery of Donald's early though subdued passion for Elsitha.

In the fifth book, the traitor Ceolph, burning with resentment on account of the violation of his daughter Emmeline's honour by one of the Danish chiefs, repairs to Alfred's camp, earnestly requesting his injured sovereign to doom him to the death which he both merited and wished. By the clemency of Alfred, however, he is spared to execute vengeance on the foe. In the early dawn of the day the Saxon warriors move forward, and, in the course of their march,—

'Passing the borders of the forest drear,
A shriek of female anguish pierced the ear,
And, starting from the shade, a figure wan,
With piteous plaint arrests the wondering van.
Loose flow'd her careless robe, her streaming hair
Floated, in ruffled tangles, to the air,
And on her livid cheek and haggard eye,
Throned in imperial state, sat Misery.

'With voice by weeping choked, convulsed her breast,
The woe-lorn form the passing host address'd.
"O, see before you, humbled to the dust,
A victim sad of cruelty and lust.—
When in the battle's doubtful shock ye join,
Think of the horrors of a fate like mine;
The curses of a violated maid
Shall nerve each arm, shall sharpen every blade.
For me—conceal'd my lineage and my name—
Ah, once my country's glory! now its shame!—
One only way remains from deep disgrace
To clear the offspring of a noble race."—
She ceased—and instant in her struggling breast
Her fatal poniard sheath'd, and sunk to rest.' P. 156.

This injured female is the daughter of Ceolph. Fired by the sight of her sufferings, the troops of Alfred hasten to fall upon the invaders. The battle of Eddington ensues, which Mr. Pye describes with classic circumstantiality. The Danes are defeated; but Alfred counts the battle dearly won, by the death of Donald, who is slain in the heat of the engagement. The fall of night terminates the battle, and, with it, the fifth book of the poem.

In the sixth book, we find the Saxon army pursuing the advantage which they had gained, and blockading the Danish camp on Ashdown-hill. By the light of the moon, a body of Danes are seen hastening their flight over the adjacent plain. They are surrounded and taken prisoners. A youthful warrior, who was entrusted to their protection, is conducted into the

presence of Alfred, who generously assures him of safety; on which unexpected promise,—

'Contending passions struggling in the breast,
Low sinks the youth, by fear and hope depress'd.
Edgar, as prompt to succour and to spare,
As the dread front of bleeding war to dare,
Caught the faint stripling ere he reach'd the ground,
And from his head the shining helm unbound.
Though on the lips was Death's pale ensign spread,
Though from the cheek the blooming rose was fled,
Though on the liquid radiance of the eyes,
The sable lash a silken curtain lies;
Yet o'er the brows, which, with the forehead, show
Like jet encircled in a bed of snow,
Flows in loose ringlets to the fresh'ning air
The soft redundance of the ambrosial hair,
And charms, of more than mortal grace, betray'd
The form and features of a beauteous maid.' P. 219.

This beauteous maid is Emma, the daughter of Guthrum the Danish chief—admiration of whose charms had for a time seduced Edgar into the service of the Danes; from which treason he was, as we have before observed, converted by his regard for the personal safety of Alfred. When Guthrum is apprised of the captivity of his daughter, he repairs to the camp of Alfred for the purpose of ransoming her. After sternly refusing the proffered gold, and apprising his suppliant that he will allow him but a short space to deliberate upon his choice of battle or unconditional submission, Alfred continues:—

'For this sweet maid, whom Fortune's changeful hour
Has given a captive to my happier power,
Whether you yield to Concord's gentler charms,
Or dare the stern arbitrement of arms,
I pledge my faith her beauties to restore,
Free, and unransomed, to her native shore;
Or, if she fear o'er Ocean's wave to roam,
I am her parent, and my realm her home.' P. 225.

Guthrum is so much affected by the generosity of Alfred's purposes with regard to his daughter, that he yields to his mercy, and, together with his troops, adopts, by the ceremony of baptism, the Christian profession. A chorus of bards now advances to congratulate the Saxon prince on his victory; and the inspired druid again strikes the prophetic string, to celebrate the establishment of the university of Oxford, the personal freedom which the wise institutions of our Saxon ancestors secured to the meanest citizen, the wide extent of British commerce, the union of Britain and Ireland, the happy life and mature death of Edward the son of Alfred, and—what a noble

summit to the climax! Mr. Pye's publication of Alfred, an epic poem in six books! This is a species of puff for which the writer is certainly entitled to a patent: it is altogether original, never having, to the best of our knowledge, been thought of by Bays, or any other wit.

Such is the argument of the poem before us; and our readers are now enabled to form a judgement of its general outline, in which we think the author's principal merit consists. As to imagination, he neither elevates the mind nor agitates the feelings. The character of Alfred contains nothing forcible or interesting—nothing which evinces the hand of a master; while his queen is a more common character than himself. Mr. Pye seems to have studied books more than the world: he vainly endeavours to make up the want of the language of passion by narration and epithets; and his poem contains little, very little, of true dramatic spirit. Mr. Pye appears also unfortunate in his determination to write an epic poem in rhyme; by the dire necessity of providing for which, he is frequently seduced into an unwarrantable phraseology. The quotation of a few instances will illustrate our meaning.

> 'O sire! O sovereign! let thy favouring *breast*
> Propitious *hear thy Donald's first* request.' P. 45.

Again—

> 'Fenced by whose sacred leaves, the royal brow
> Mocks the vain lightnings aimed by Faction's blow.' P. 88.

We are persuaded that the necessity of rhyme alone compelled Mr. Pye to introduce the awkward idea of a *breast hearing*. And what but the same cause could have betrayed him into the following tame tautology, which occurs in p. 46?

> 'My fondness shall not dim thy warlike fire,
> Or check that courage which it must admire.'

A similar instance strikes us again in p. 62:

> 'How horde succeeding horde, in countless band,
> Spread desolation o'er the ruin'd land,
> Swept o'er the cultured plains in sanguine flood,
> And mark'd their course by carnage and by blood.'

Of passages which appear to us to be enfeebled by this radical defect we could gather a copious harvest; but we are confined within certain limits; and willingly forego the unpleasant task of multiplying quotations which critical justice compels us to mark with disapprobation. Before we conclude our article, however, we must be permitted to remark, that we were surprised to find, in the work of a translator of Aristotle's

Poetics, so many mixed and incongruous metaphors. The following passage is extremely faulty in that respect:

> ' A sacred throne on Mercy's basis rear'd,
> By Virtue foster'd, by Oppression fear'd ;—
> To which thy guardian laws shall boast they gave
> One power by aught uncheck'd, the power to save.' P. 90.

Here the throne is first an inanimate substance reared on a basis; but, by the *hocus pocus* of our poet's language, it soon becomes a person, and is fostered, feared, and possessed of power. Mr. Pye's occasional attempts to put into metre the popular political phrases of the times frequently betray him into great incorrectness and a vitiated form of expression, which in the present cultivated age is almost unpardonable: for the remark of the elegant La Harpe is strictly just,—' L' indulgence se mesure encore sur le temps où l'on a ecrit, et sur le plus ou moins de modèles que l'on avait. Quand une fois ils sont en grand nombre, les fautes ne sont plus rachetables qu'à force de beautés.'

ART. II.—*Encyclopædia Britannica; or, a Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, and Miscellaneous Literature, &c. Illustrated with Five Hundred and Forty-two Copper-plates. The Third Edition, greatly improved.* 18 *Vols.* 4*to.* 27*l. Boards.* Lackington *and* Co.

ART. III.—*Supplement to the Third Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica, &c. By George Gleig, LL.D. &c. Illustrated with Fifty Copper-plates.* 2 *Vols.* 4*to.* 3*l. Boards.* Lackington *and* Co.

FIFTEEN years have elapsed since the same hands, which have lately turned over the pages of the third edition of this Dictionary, with its Supplement, opened it on its earliest appearance. Various circumstances at that time prejudiced us against it; but we perused it with patience, with all the impartiality in our power, and were convinced of the general merits of the work. After another examination, we have recurred to our former article in the 64th volume, O.S.; nor do we meet with a word there that, ' dying, we would wish to blot.' Whatever we have blamed has been since corrected. The changes in fifteen years must be of course numerous; and the additions, in an age of rapidly improving science, not less so.

In that volume of our journal in which we considered the present work, and the improved edition of Mr. Chambers's Cy-

clopædia published at the same period, we gave at some length our ideas of the utility of such an attempt—of its objects and execution. These remarks we need not repeat, and we perceive nothing that can at present be added. It remains only to speak of the improvements in the third edition, and of the merit of the two supplementary volumes.

It is singular that two works of the same kind, both of acknowledged desert, should have been undertaken by two individuals, and brought to no small degree of perfection, with very slight assistance. We allude to Mr. Chambers's Dictionary, and this before us. The latter was almost exclusively the labour of Mr. Macfarquhar, a printer. In its progressive editions, however, the assistants have been numerous and able.

'In a collection so extensive and multifarious, a few mistakes, repetitions, and omissions, might surely be passed over without severity of censure, although the publication had from the beginning to the end been superintended by the same man; but they will be allowed to have been almost unavoidable, when it is known that, after the work was far advanced, it was committed to the care of a new editor, who, though he was in a great degree a stranger to the contents of the printed volumes, found no clue of his predecessor's which could guide him accurately through those to be compiled.

'We beg it to be understood, that this observation is not made with a view to remove any share of blame from the second to the first editor; for Mr. Colin Macfarquhar, who conducted the publication beyond the middle of the twelfth volume, was a man whom few who knew him will be disposed to blame, and on whose industrious integrity those who knew him best must admit that it would be difficult to bestow too much praise. Born in Edinburgh of parents respectable, though not affluent, he was, at an early period of life, bound an apprentice to a printer. This profession gave him a taste for science and literature, or rather furnished him with opportunities of cultivating the taste which he derived from nature; and he soon became well acquainted with the most popular writers in natural history, and in natural and moral philosophy. When he opened a printing-house of his own, rectitude of conduct quickly recommended him to friends and to employment; and the unremitted prosecution of his studies eminently qualified him for superintending the publication of a new dictionary of arts, sciences, and literature; of which, under the title of Encyclopædia Britannica, the idea had been conceived by him and his friend Mr. Andrew Bell, engraver. By whom these gentlemen were assisted in digesting the plan which attracted to that work so much of the public attention, or whether they had any assistance, are questions in which our readers cannot be interested. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Macfarquhar had the sole care of compiling the present edition; and that, with the aid of a very few literary friends, he brought it down to the article Mysteries, in the twelfth volume, when he was cut off in the forty-eighth year of his age by a death which, though not sudden, was perhaps unexpected. His career was indeed short; but of him it may be said

with as much propriety as of most men, *Nemo parum diu vixit, qui virtutis perfectæ perfecto functus est munere.*' P. xii.

His successor was Dr. Gleig of Stirling, who had antecedently assisted him, but with whom he had no confidential correspondence respecting the plan. The former editions were however before him; and we should suppose little difficulty could have arisen in consequence of this source; and indeed little has arisen. We consider it however as an imperfect apology, when we perceive the editor remarking, that, where the system is defective in its principal article, the omissions are supplied in some subordinate ones. As we have formerly observed, every subject is a branch, and on it those thence derived should depend, without becoming either more important than their principal, or assuming its office. It is indeed better that an irregularity should be allowed, than that necessary information should be omitted; but the excuse is the subterfuge of haste, inaccuracy, or inattention. It is equally an error perhaps, from the same source, when subjects are not found under those heads where they would be chiefly looked for. It is no excuse that they occur under others, unless this be pointed out. Several omissions are however allowed; and these we suppose have rendered a supplement necessary.

The original work was comprised in ten volumes; and we showed, in our remarks on the first edition, that the compilers had not only injudiciously contracted their limits, but not employed their space to the best advantage. The two last volumes were consequently very inadequate to the subjects to be treated of. In the third edition they thought themselves secure in promising that it should not extend beyond eighteen volumes, and that any increase in the bulk should not be attended with additional expense to the subscribers. But they still calculated erroneously; and though they disposed of their materials with more skill, and employed less space in trifling explanations, much was still omitted, and many subjects too hastily passed over. We mean not to deny that the editors exerted themselves with perseverance, and extended their volumes with unexampled liberality;—but they had involved themselves in a rash engagement; and to retreat with decency was a comparative victory. The plan of the Encyclopædia Britannica is now well known; and that the additions of biography and geography are valuable ones in the opinion of the public, may be supposed, from this part of the plan being imitated in Dr. Rees's new edition of Chambers's Dictionary. The account of the contributors to the third edition before us will conclude all that we need observe on this subject.

For whatever instruction may be conveyed in the articles Anatomy and Surgery the public is indebted to Andrew Bell, F.S.S.A.

one of the proprietors, and the ingenious Mr. Fyfe. From the former of these gentlemen the world will soon receive one of the most splendid anatomical works which it has yet seen; and as the latter has long officiated under Dr. Monro as dissector in the anatomical school of the university of Edinburgh, it is needless for us to say how well he must be acquainted with the subjects on which we employed him to write. Aërology, Aërostation, Chemistry, Electricity, Gunnery, Hydrostatics, Mechanics, Meteorology, with most of the separate articles in the various branches of natural history, we have reason to believe were compiled by Mr. James Tytler, chemist; a man who, though his conduct has been marked by almost perpetual imprudence, possesses no common share of science and genius. The article Blind was furnished by Dr. Blacklock and Dr. Moyes, both blind themselves, and both men of superior attainments; the former in elegant literature, and the latter in the physical sciences. We believe that the article Education was composed by Mr. Robert Heron, author of a history of Scotland now publishing, who likewise furnished the greater part of what we have published under the titles Religion and Society. The lives of Johnson and Mary queen of Scots, with the articles Instinct, Love, Metaphysics, Miracle, the history of ethics under Moral Philosophy, Oath, Passion, Plastic Nature, Polytheism, Prayer, Slavery, and Supper of the Lord, were contributed by Dr. Gleig, editor of the last six volumes; Grammar and Theology by Dr. Gleig and the reverend James Bruce, A.B. late of Emmanuel college, Cambridge; and Motion by Dr. Gleig and Mr. Tytler. The system of Medicine, which was published in the former edition, was revised and improved for the present by Andrew Duncan, M.D. fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and professor of the Institutes of Physic in the university. The notes to the article Music were contributed by Dr. Blacklock, and the history of the art by William Maxwell Morison, Esq. advocate, who likewise favoured us with what we have published on the science of Physiognomy. The articles Mysteries, Mythology, and Philology, we owe to the erudition of David Doig, LL.D. F.S.S.A. master of the grammar-school of Stirling, and author of two very ingenious letters on the Savage State, addressed to the late lord Kames. Navigation, Parallax, Pendulum, Projection of the Sphere, Ship-building, and Naval Tactics, were furnished by Andrew Mackay, LL.D. F.R.S.E. of Aberdeen, and known to the public as author of a treatise on the Theory and Practice of finding the Longitude at Sea or Land. John Robison, M.A. secretary to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and professor of natural philosophy in the university, did the editor the honour of contributing to the Encyclopædia Britannica the valuable articles Physics, Pneumatics, Precession of the Equinoxes, Projectiles, Pumps, Resistance of Fluids, River, Roof, Rope-making, Rotation, Seamanship, Signals, Sound, Specific Gravity, Statics, Steam and Steam-Engine, Strength of Materials, Telescope, Tide, Articulating Trumpet, Variation of the Compass, and Water-Works. Philosophy is the joint production of professor Robison and Dr. Gleig. Physiology was furnished by John Barclay, M.D. of Edinburgh, whose merits, if the editor be not partial to his friend, it

will raise high in the estimation of men of science. The essays on Predestination and Providence were contributed by Robert Forsyth, Esq. advocate; the account of the French Revolution by Mr. Forsyth and Dr. Gleig; and Oxygen and Phlogiston by John Rotheram, M.D. professor of natural philosophy in the university of St. Andrew's.

'The other contributors to the first part of the work we cannot enumerate; but we know that much useful information was occasionally communicated by Dr. Latham of Dartford in Kent, the celebrated ornithologist; by Dr. William Wright, physician-general to the forces in the West-Indies under the command of sir Ralph Abercrombie; by the reverend J. Hawkins, vicar of Halsted in Essex; by the late Mr. Adams, mathematical instrument-maker to his majesty; and by Mr. William Jones, optician, in Holborn, London. There is, however, no man to whom the proprietors of the Encyclopædia Britannica feel themselves under greater obligations than to Dr. Black, for the very handsome offer which he made to the person who was at first intrusted with the chemical department of the work. And while they express thus publicly their gratitude to him, may not the editor declare how much he is indebted to his two assistants, the reverend James Walker, M.A. of St. John's college, Cambridge, and Mr. James Thomson of Crieff, preacher in the church of Scotland? Of these gentlemen, who successively had the care of the work when he was necessarily absent, he could always say, *Quibus in rebus ipsi intereſſe non possumus, in his, operæ nostræ vicaria fides amicorum supponitur.*' P. XV.

Whatever may have been the omissions in the third edition of the Encyclopædia, from the want of mutual confidence and the necessary co-operation between the first and the second editor, they may be well supplied in a supplement. Supplements are in general a sort of wounded snakes, which drag their slow lengths along; but in a work of this kind they are necessary appendages, whether we consider the successive editors, or the rapidly succeeding improvements of an age peculiarly active and successful in every scientific pursuit. It is also with great propriety conducted by the editor who succeeded Mr. Macfarquhar, who could be best aware of the omissions or errors, and consequently could best supply or correct them.

The authors of many of the articles in the Supplement are noticed in the advertisement which precedes it. Professor Robison's labours in the Encyclopædia began with *Pro*jectiles, and, consequently, the greater number, and the more important articles, from the former gentleman, occur previous to that part of the alphabet. Thus we find that we are indebted to him for the articles Arch, Astronomy, Carpentry, Centre, Dynamics, Electricity, Impulsion, Involution and Evolution of Curves, Machinery, Magnetism, Mechanics, Percussion, Piano-forte, Centre of Position, Temperament in Music, Thunder, Musical Trumpet, Tschirnhaus, and Watch-work.

To Dr. Thomas Thompson our author was indebted for a very extensive and elaborate article on chemistry, for an article on mineralogy, and another on dying substances. Dr. Wright has persevered in his botanical assistance; and Mr. Playfair has communicated one mathematical article, which we shall in course notice. The account of the French revolution is continued by the editor and professor Robison; but to this subject also we shall recur more at large.

The rest of the information in the advertisement is not of great importance. In biography, the editor soon found he had taken too extensive a range, and was obliged to confine himself to those who were eminent in science or literature, or were patrons of either. Some references therefore, in the early articles, will not be found in their place. The progress also of science and revolutionary events is so rapid, that the reader is requested to hasten from the article of Galvanism to Torpedo, and from Revolution to the life of marshal Suworow.

We perceive with great satisfaction, that, through the whole of the Supplement, there is a constant reference to the Encyclopædia; that errors of the press, or more important ones, are carefully corrected; new and fuller information supplied; and that the accounts are more scientifically compressed. Indeed, so anxious is the editor of the Supplement to correct mistakes, that we have occasionally thought him a little hypercritical, and that faults, sometimes ostentatiously pointed out, might without danger have been passed over. The error however, if it exist, is on the right side. It is impossible to notice all the new articles; but we shall again turn over the pages, and give a general account of the more considerable improvements.

We met, very early, with a neat little addition to the article of 'action,' which perhaps we should not have regarded in this place, but to have marked its contradiction to some important parts of the work itself. The author contends very properly, that an agent cannot act where it is not; but the error seems to be in not admitting the influence of any known or supposed medium. We think it highly probable, if not certain, that even in the apparent impulse of bodies they are not in contact, so that they cannot act immediately on each other. It would be singular if the æther of Newton were not sufficient to explain the greater number of phænomena, since from these its supposed properties are derived: it is a creature of imagination, formed to give a plausible explanation of appearances, and aiming at no more. A greater fault is, however, the inconsistency of this article. It contends that the influence of the sun or moon cannot produce tides, because there is no immediate action; while in the Encyclopædia itself this phænomenon is decidedly attributed to attraction. It rests also, in its reasoning, on the *vis inertiæ* of matter; while one of the most striking, the most

judicious and philosophical, articles in the Supplement, avoids this principle, which, like many other parts of the mechanical system, requires at least a little modification. Whatever may be the merit of the present article—as it is so contradictory to the general doctrines of the work—it should not have found a place in the Supplement, without some remarks from the editor.

We find some very useful and necessary additions to the Encyclopædia in the earlier pages of the Supplement, particularly under the word 'alum,' where there is a very comprehensive abridgement of M. Vauquelin's experiments. The article of 'arch,' contributed by professor Robison, is also a most masterly one: we have seen nothing, on this or on a similar subject, so clear, scientific, and comprehensive. Could we stay to analyse any article, or indeed were it in our power, from the possession of plates, we would not pass this over so cursorily. We believe the doctrine of arches derived from the properties of the wedge was published since the appearance of this Supplement; but it is here unnecessary.

The additions to the article 'architecture' contain only abstracts from a paper on the origin of Gothic architecture, published in the last volume of the Edinburgh Transactions.

The new article of 'astronomy' is a valuable and comprehensive supplement to the former, and contains some necessary additions. We find however in this some hints in opposition to the æther of Newton; but we must allege—and we fear no contradiction—that all the phænomena require the intervention of some subtile fluid between bodies. A very little refinement, which will bear the test of examination, may soon reduce all the appearances supposed to result from actual contact to the action of this fluid. It is enough however if the imaginary intermede fulfil all the offices required.

Various biographical sketches follow, which we cannot always enumerate. With respect to the lives of the famous or infamous Bahrdt, and of the fallen degraded Bailly, we may again enlarge, when we speak of the article of *illuminés*—a sect which may have been diverted to unworthy purposes, but which many, who are inimical to its principles, do not believe to have been originally designed for such. In the life of Behem, the author or editor appears to be convinced of his having discovered the American continent previous to the voyage of Columbus, and adduces strong arguments in favour of this opinion. The assertion requires a longer discussion than we are enabled at present to give it; yet we own that we are unwilling, according to the present evidence, to deprive Columbus of the honour. The other lives under this second letter of the alphabet are numerous, and contain more valuable information. Of Dr. Berkenhout we have some important information, not generally known; and we think that he deserved an ampler

range. His quickness, the clearness of his views, and the extent of his information, might have led him to a much higher station in the temple of fame, or of science, if he had not been compelled to court the Cynthia of the minute. Of Bernoulli, of Blacklock, of Bonetus, and Bonnet, we do not perceive that we have more than was before known. To the life of Blacklock, an early and valuable contributor to the Encyclopædia, we hoped something might have been added: yet the prior account, dictated by warm affection, was perhaps sufficiently full; and the little that we could supply from an ardent friendship and almost reverential regard is perhaps too trifling to find a place in such a volume. Of Boscovich, and his system, the statement is full and judicious. His systems of natural philosophy and of light are detailed with great perspicuity and propriety; and if the doctrine we have hinted at, that all the phænomena of actual contact may be justly attributed to the action of an interposed fluid, be ever fashionable, to Boscovich the merit of the first idea is due. We would, however, warn the eager theorist and the hypercritic, that no conclusion can be drawn from the admission of this doctrine, in favour of materialism. It is not indeed our present business to do more than guard against the consequence; yet as calumny is always eagerly alive, we shall remark that the existence of a fluid, *connected with a body*, implies the *existence* of the body. If he advance a step farther, and conclude that, provided we can explain the phænomena without the assistance of matter, we may at once deny its existence, we shall only add that the conclusion is unwarranted by the premises. It is rash, injudicious, and unphilosophic. The mechanical philosopher calculates the power of his machines by considering a line as without dimensions, except in length; but never constructs his model without taking into the account the thickness, the weight, and the action of the bar.

Of Bouguer, Brindley, Burke, and Burns, we have good and satisfactory memoirs; yet, on the whole, we have nothing added which, as a novelty, can arrest our attention. In the life of Bruce we find a disquisition of some ingenuity, respecting his pretensions to the discovery of the head of the Nile. It is not a question in which, after what has been said, we need again engage; but we shall add some observations which, at least to us, are new. They may indeed admit of a reply: but we shall not have leisure to return to the subject.

'A more serious objection to the truth of Mr. Bruce's narrative was started by an anonymous, but able critic, in an Edinburgh newspaper, soon after the publication, from the account of two astronomical phænomena, which *could not possibly have happened*, as Mr. Bruce asserts. The first of these is the appearance of the new moon at

Furshout, during Mr. Bruce's stay in that place, which he mentions to have been from 25th December 1768 to the 7th of January 1769; and on a particular day in that interval asserts, that the new moon was seen by a fakir, and was found by the ephemerides to be three days old; whereas it is certain that the moon changed on the 8th of January 1769.—The other phænomenon appears equally impossible. At Teawa, Mr. Bruce says, he terrified the shekh by foretelling that an eclipse of the moon was to take place at four after noon of the 17th of April, 1772; that accordingly, soon after that hour, he saw the eclipse was begun; and when the shadow was half over, told the shekh that in a little time the moon would be totally darkened. Now, by calculation, it is certain, that at Teawa this eclipse must have begun at 36 minutes past four, and the moon have been totally covered at 33 minutes past five; while the sun set there a few minutes past six, before which time the moon, then in opposition, could not have risen: so that as the moon rose totally eclipsed, Mr. Bruce could not see the shadow half over the disk, nor point it out to the shekh. To these objections, which appear unsurmountable, Mr. Bruce made no reply, though, in conversation, he said he would do it in the second edition of his book.

'These are mistakes which can hardly be accounted for by attributing them to the inaccuracy of his notes, or indeed to any cause which we are inclined to name; and perhaps he has fallen into a mistake of the same kind in his account of the enormous main-sail yard of the *canja*, in which he sailed up the river Nile. To every man who has but dipped into the science of mechanics, it is known that a beam of wood 200 feet in length must be of proportional thickness, or it would fall in pieces by its own weight. This thickness must be greatly increased, to enable it to bear the strain occasioned by a prodigious sail filled with wind; and those only who have been at the Nile, and have seen the canjas, can say, whether these vessels, or indeed any vessels which can be employed on that river, would not be overset by yards,

> ——— To equal which, the tallest pine
> Hewn on Norwegian hills, to be the mast
> Of some great admiral, were but a wand.' Vol. i. p. 128.

The lives of Campbell and of Carré present nothing peculiarly interesting. That however of the late empress of Russia is compacted with great skill, and displays a vast fund of general as well as of political science. The life of Condorcet is an able performance, though too much of a *peculiar* spirit of invective against the French revolution prevails in it. There is no disgrace in saying that the train of events, and the conduct of the revolutionists, have placed this subject in a very different light from that in which it once appeared; and to allow at any time that we have been mistaken, is only to admit that we are wiser to day than we were yesterday. We shall however enlarge on this subject at a future period. The life of Copernicus, and the progress of his discoveries, is an admirable one, from

Dr. Smith's Essays; that of Cullen is full and comprehensive, though in some of the dates we suspect it to be erroneous.

We have proceeded with the lives, not to break the subject into too many parts. With respect to the history and the geography, we can add little. Of the historical articles we may in general remark, what was before omitted, that they are very imperfectly executed; and in the references we experience perpetual disappointment. This is by no means remedied in the Supplement. Of geography, as a science, we see but little; but of the travels, especially those lately published, we find at times tolerably judicious and satisfactory abstracts.

On the subject of 'bleaching' the descriptions are perspicuous and accurate: but some of the later improvements, published since the appearance of the Supplement, are of course omitted. These however occur in many different places, and the omission may be easily supplied. The article of 'book-keeping' is judicious, and those of 'bread' and 'brewing' useful and instructive. We find our author frequently indebted to a very curious and useful work—professor Beckman's History of Inventions. To it, particularly in this part, the editors are obliged for many valuable observations on butter, chimneys, candles, &c. It is with great pleasure that we observe the specification of a patent for sweeping chimneys, which we hope will succeed, though we fear, from appearances, that it will be found too complicated. The articles of 'carpentry' and 'centre' are clear, recondite, and valuable, in a very high degree: they show, in every part, the hand of a master, and combine the most judicious practical observations with a correct theory. The article of 'chemistry' is extensive and valuable, and approaches as nearly to a complete abstract as the period of its compilation would admit.

We read with satisfaction the account of the 'antecedental calculus,' by Dr. Glenie, which appears to be a geometrical form of the differential calculus, or of fluxions. We own ourselves partial to the higher geometry of the ancients: but we fear the antecedental calculus will not answer the fond expectations of its inventor.

In the article of 'cherubim' the editor has inserted the explanations of Mr. Parkhurst, one of the soundest of the Hutchinsonians, with some judicious observations in opposition to his system. This article may be read with great satisfaction by the inquirers into the ancient Judaïcal rites, but will not admit of an abstract, could we otherwise have inserted it. Under the head of China, we have some valuable remarks on that singular country, and a judicious comparison or contrast of the different, and sometimes opposite, opinions of sir William Jones and sir G. Staunton, respecting the origin and the chronology of the Chinese. Some of the editor's remarks we shall transcribe.

'This is a very positive decision against the opinion of a man whose talents and knowledge of oriental learning were such as to give to his opinions on such subjects the greatest weight. If the statements and reasonings of sir George Staunton be accurate, the Chinese empire must have subsisted at least 3000 years before the Christian era; for he says expressly, that *many ages* must have elapsed before the commencement of that cycle, which, according to him, commenced 2277 years before the birth of Christ. But surely Confucius was as well acquainted with the ancient annals of his own country, and the credibility which is due to them, as any man of the present age, whether Chinese or European; and we have seen, that he considered none of them as authentic which relate events previous to the eleventh century before our era. Even this is by much too early a period at which to rely upon them with implicit confidence, if it be true, as sir George informs us, that the transactions of the empire have been regularly recorded only from about *three* centuries before the birth of Christ. With respect to the cycle, there is every probability that it was derived from India, where we know that astronomy has been cultivated as a science from time immemorial, and where, we have shown in another place, that the commencement of the cycle was actually antedated. (See Philosophy, No. 9. Encyl.) We have therefore no hesitation in preferring sir William Jones's opinion of the origin of the Chinese empire to sir George Staunton's; not merely because we believe the former of these gentlemen to have been more conversant than the latter with Chinese literature, but because we think his reasoning more consistent with itself, and his conclusion more consonant to that outline of chronology, which, as he observes, has been so correctly traced for the last 2000 years, that we must be hardy sceptics to call it in question.' Vol. i. p. 418.

'To sir William Jones's derivation of the Chinese from the Hindoos, the state of their written language may occur as an objection; for since it is certain that alphabetical characters were in use among the Hindoos before the period at which he places the emigration of the *Chinas*, how, it may be asked, came these people to drop the mode of writing practised by their ancestors, and to adopt another so very inconvenient as that which the Chinese have used from the foundation of their empire? The force of this objection, however, will vanish, when it is remembered that the Chinas were of the military cast; that they had gradually abandoned the ordinances of the Veda, and were in consequence degraded; and that they rambled from their native country in small bodies. We do not know that the military cast among the Hindoos was ever much devoted to letters; there is the greatest reason to believe that a degraded cast would neglect them; and it is certain that small bodies of men, wandering in deserts, would have their time and their attention completely occupied in providing for the day that was passing over them. That the Chinas should have forgotten the alphabetical characters of the Hindoos is therefore so far from being an objection to sir William Jones's account of their descent from that people, that it is the natural consequence of the manner in which he says they rambled

from Hindostan to the northern provinces of what now constitutes the Chinese empire.' Vol. i. p. 419.

The additions to the article 'church' relate to the Greek church; and a very satisfactory account of its rites and ceremonies is inserted. On the cultivation of 'coffee' we have some good accounts from different works published since the æra of the Encyclopædia; and even of the humble trade of a 'cooper' we have information which few would expect, and which to many will be new. The remarks on 'accidental colours' are valuable; but, on the subject of 'contagion,' the editor seems to trust too implicitly to Dr. C. Smyth's mode of fumigation. We remember remarking, that Dr. Duncan did not give sufficient attention to the opposite methods. The author observes that we know little of contagion. It is indeed true: but we know pretty well how, in the greater number of instances, to avoid it.

We have already extended our article too far; and it may frighten our readers to reflect that we have only finished the letter C. We trust, however, that we have laid the foundation for more quick dispatch in future, and hope that our farther remarks will not proceed beyond another article. We may, like the compilers of the Encyclopædia, miscalculate; but we are certain that we shall not err in so great a degree.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. IV.—*The Natural History of Volcanoes: including Submarine Volcanoes, and other analogous Phænomena. By the Abbé Ordinaire, formerly Canon of St. Amable at Riom in Auvergne. Translated from the original French Manuscript, by R. C. Dallas, Esq.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

THE fate of volcanoes, as philosophical agents, has been singular. For ages they astonished and terrified, and were considered as the most dreadful and destructive powers: in turn they became in our systems the great means of reproduction, the sources of fertility, the causes which divided the waters from the waters, and made the dry land appear. In the hands of the geologist they were agents peculiarly convenient and manageable; for he could place them in any region, and produce from them any change. Sound observation has however corrected the error in each extreme. Volcanoes are isolated mountains, not comparatively numerous, nor extensive in their advantages or their devastations. Many of their fancied vestiges we have discovered to be of a different origin; and their intense fires have been found of less temperature than even the most modest philosopher formerly ventured to suspect. At a period,

therefore, when philosophy has calmed the ardor with which we surveyed these stupendous phænomena—when we no longer regard them with stupid admiration, or abject terror—their 'Natural History' may be read with advantage; and facts may triumph over theory, or the structures of a fertile imagination. The human mind, however, does not soon step down from its ardent flights; and the period is yet at some distance when fancy will not add to the number and increase the power of these burning projections. The abbé Ordinaire's researches have been extensive, and his work is in general a valuable one: yet he is deficient in some points that more modern inquiries might have supplied; and we are surprised that the scientific investigations of Kirwan, and the later philosophical observations of Spallanzani, escaped him. On the whole, indeed, this work is in some measure flimsy and superficial; but it contains some facts of importance, and a collection of numerous observations not before brought together in so regular and pleasing a form.

The abbé describes volcanic mountains, and the inflammable substances which may feed their fires. He supposes that the existence of many apertures shows that the mountain will soon cease to be volcanic: but for this he offers no very satisfactory reason. He speaks of subterraneous fires where there are no explosions; but no where distinguishes with accuracy the causes of the explosion. His enumeration of those internal fires not attended by explosions is very full: that from M. Pallas we should have transcribed, had not the work been before us, both in the French and English versions. The abbé seems to support the theory of central fires, and to suppose that commotions in the earth may arise from these; so that in many places a volcano which might serve as a spiraculum would be beneficial. The remedy is however a very dangerous one; and we believe it may be greatly doubted, whether the causes are so nearly the same as the author, with others, has supposed; and the existence of central fires to any extent is very improbable.

The formation of mountains, M. Ordinaire contends with great justice, is not owing to volcanoes; for even the most singular volcanoes known at present were mountains before they exploded. In this disquisition he would have found an able assistant in Spallanzani. With equal reason, the opinion that all volcanoes are formed at the bottom of the ocean, and the mountains raised by their power, is rejected by our author. Why, however, volcanoes should be found only in the highest mountains, it is not easy to explain. The following reasons require the support of facts; yet they are as plausible as most others.

'Mountains, like all the other productions of nature, have a regular conformity of parts: the dimensions of their mass are in due

proportion: I mean that we may always estimate the width of the sides, and the depth of the base, by the height to which the head of a mountain rises on the globe. The exceptions to this rule, for there are some, are very few in number.

'We may add, that, of course, all the internal properties of which a concurrence is necessary to the forming of a volcano, such as fissures, caverns, a variety and abundance of inflammable matter, and a quantity of air and water, all in that case preserve similar proportions.

'According to these plain observations, we shall not find in a mountain of an inferior order either bulk sufficient to contain and put in action what is necessary to produce a volcano of the first kind, which I have just mentioned; or depth enough for its base to reach, and still less for its sides to attract, the interior fires, commonly called central, and give existence to a volcano of the second kind.

'But we can conceive without difficulty that the summit of a very high mountain, which in its descent takes an extension always increasing, probably down to its extreme internal base, may become a volcano either way. Etna extends itself nearly beneath the whole island of Sicily: what a prodigious lateral expansion, what dimensions at its base must it have when it reaches its lowest internal foundation! As to its depth, we must suppose it very great; but where shall we presume that it stops?

'If we consider the peak of Teneriffe, only from its summit to the level of the Atlantic ocean, how is it expanded even in that descent! Yet that is but its apparent base on the surface of the globe. Could we follow it to its interior foundation, how should we be astonished at its extent and depth!

'It is easy to conceive that nature may either convert such prodigious masses into formidable arsenals, or employ them as fire-pumps in throwing out the subterranean fires, in order to relieve the bowels of the earth, and prevent a confusion over the whole surface of it.

'I admit that all volcanoes are not so high as Etna, or the peak of Teneriffe; but we may consider these two as holding nearly the middle point on the scale of volcanic mountains. Many volcanoes are of their height: they are about a third lower than the highest, and certainly very few are a third lower than they are.' p. 68.

Our author supposes that the mountains in the moon are higher than those on the earth, in a greater proportion than has been conceived; because the estimation of the latter commences from the level of the sea; while those of the moon have their measure commenced from their immediate bases: and he thinks that the volcanoes of the moon are in like manner considerable. He is somewhat at a loss to explain why submarine volcanoes should have no apparent elevation; but we know little of these, except when connected with burning mountains on an adjacent island, and cannot easily in any case measure their elevation. The sea is undoubtedly much deeper than has been supposed; for M. de la Place has shown that we must admit a hitherto unsuspected

depth, to be able to account for the phænomena of the tides from attraction.

The abbé next enumerates the many islands rendered uninhabitable by their volcanoes, and particularly notices the state of Iceland. The heat of simply hot water springs is, he thinks, owing to subterraneous fires, as well as the heat of all others which contain neither iron nor sulphur. It is singular that he should have overlooked the great heat of the Gieser fountain, which must be more than that of boiling water. This great degree it is compelled to bear from the compression, as it retains that heat after having been raised so high in the air. Kamtschatka is in the same latitude with Iceland, but in opposite longitudes, and equally subject to volcanic fires. Our author considers this as merely accidental; since the fires of volcanoes are, he thinks, in the external 'coats' of the earth. The abbé is of opinion that volcanoes render the neighbouring districts fruitful and healthy. This however has never been proved: they are not unusually sickly or infertile during the remission of the volcanic convulsions, nor are they peculiarly fruitful and healthy after them.

Our author treats next of the cause of these commotions; and, though he speaks much of oils, bitumens, fermentations, &c. he rests the chief action on its true foundation—the powerful expansion of water when, by heat, it becomes steam. Here too Spallanzani, and even sir William Hamilton, would have assisted him. Various circumstances of an eruption are noticed in the following chapters. A description of such a phænomenon we shall select.

'Let the reader figure to himself Vesuvius near four thousand feet high, Etna which is more than twelve thousand, Pichinca which is fifteen thousand, Cotopaxis or Antisana, which are eighteen thousand; or, in fine, the insular volcano we have already mentioned, which was thought to exceed Chinboraço, and which, were it only equal to it, would still be nineteen thousand three hundred and ninety-two feet in height: let him imagine a column of fire of three or four miles in circumference, and sometimes more, whose height is more than double that of the mountain, rising from it with a thundering noise greater than that of all the cannon in the world discharged together. It seems as if it would set the sky on fire: lightnings flash from it. The dazzling brightness of its fire could not be endured by the eye, did not immense spiral clouds of smoke moderate its fierceness at intervals. These spread through the atmosphere, which they thicken: the whole horizon is covered with darkness; and at length nothing is to be seen but the burning summit of the mountain and the wonderful column of fire.

'Its height, bulk, and explosion, result from the confinement in which the air had been kept within the volcano. Rarefied to the highest degree, forced on by the increasing heat of the immense pit, and pressed more and more by the prodigious fermentation of the

lava, the inflamed air, reduced to the size of the crater, at length escapes, spinning round and round. Breaking the top of the shaft, it bears it along in a thousand pieces, with soot, ashes, and pumice, with which the sides of the abyss within were loaded. In this horrible whirlwind it is even common to see huge pieces of calcined rock, torn from the bosom of the mountain, carried into the air.

'The display of this phænomenon, in its extent and duration, depends upon the degree of force in the circumstances we have just mentioned. When the parts first raised lose this force, and, being left to their own weight, would naturally sink, those that come next, being still themselves supported, repel and throw them off. At that juncture an overspreading of the fire takes place at the top of the column, which adds to its beauty. I think it must have been from this view of it that the younger Pliny drew his comparison between the production of that eruption of Vesuvius, by which his uncle was killed, and of which he was himself an eye-witness, and the cypress tree.

'In a short time the whole of the column turns into a horrible shower of red hot rocks, flints, and ashes. Monstrous burning masses are seen bounding and rolling down the side of the mountain. Woe be to those places which lie in the direction of the wind prevailing at the time of this tremendous shower! Pompeii, Herculaneum, and Stabiæ, three towns to the south-west of Vesuvius, disappeared about seventeen centuries ago by a similar occurrence: and it was only in this century (the eighteenth) that they were discovered. A column, such as that we have been describing, broke over them, and the land about them: they were buried more than fifty feet under a mass of ashes and calcined flints, which was farther covered by a bed of lava several feet deep. If the wind be violent the ashes are carried to an incredible distance.' P. 125.

The ashes and other substances ejected by volcanic fires are various. The former were not however the cause of the dry fog in 1783, which seems to have been a phænomenon connected with electricity, though in what way is yet unknown. The other matters thrown out by volcanoes are sufficiently known; but the author has not detailed them scientifically. The flow of the lava is poetically described; yet the reader will observe that this wall of solid fire does not inflame a stick stuck into it, nor scorch the hand which holds the frying-pan—an experiment often tried over it.

'In this view it is a real river of fire at its source. The red hot lava issues in immense bubbles. It does not however become a rapid current even on the declivity of the mountain, but rolls heavily, being of a consistency, as we have already observed, very compact and adhesive. As it descends, the stream widens: it burns up every thing consumable by fire in its way. Its waves seem to be inexhaustible; they reach the plain in millions upon millions, often presenting to view a breadth of a mile and a half, and oft-times more. Here the following waves with difficulty press and impel those before: they rise one above the other in piles. At a certain distance from

the crater, when the air has made a sensible impression on the lava, it flows in a body from twelve to fifteen feet high, over which the stream is constantly collecting anew. It is a wall of solid fire; for to windward one may approach near enough to touch the matter with a pole, and try its resistance; although to leeward it is not to be borne within thirty paces without danger of suffocation. One might suppose that the top of these accumulated and moving bodies would concrete and become fixed, but it is not so: the dreadful heat they contain keeps them in a state sufficiently liquid to occasion the gradual rolling off of the mass; for it is in that manner that a stream of lava continues to run, and form a prolongation of this amazing wall. Five weeks after the eruption of 1794 the centre of the thickest part of the lava was red-hot. The progression of the matter thus continues as long as it is supplied from the crater, which does not cease disgorging until, after an emission more or less copious, the effervescence in the remainder of the matter contained in the gulf begins to subside. Then it still appears for some time bubbling at the rim of the crater, and afterwards contracts and sinks insensibly, till at last the mountain is restored to its usual calm.' P. 139.

The quantity of lava disgorged is immense; but the author does not recollect that it is very often porous, and that its specific gravity is inconsiderable. Among the matters ejected is sometimes water, when apparently this fluid is in greater proportion than the heat can convert into steam. It is an idle question to contest whether it proceed from the sea or reservoirs of fresh water. Each may occasionally supply the shower; and it is equally futile to dispute whether the matter discharged come from the middle or below the base of the mountain; for the question can never be decided.

The causes of the extinction of volcanoes are examined; but on these we need not enlarge, as many of them are imaginary. The extinction of the volcanoes in the Grecian islands in the Archipelago is attributed to the Euxine bursting through the Bosporus of Thrace — a circumstance that cannot admit of proof, and on which the negative would be as probable as the affirmative. Some observations on the Giant's Causeway are subjoined; and the author discusses the question of these columns being volcanic somewhat superficially:—he leaves it undecided.

Several of the following chapters contain a catalogue of the different volcanoes hitherto known in different countries. It is, so far as our recollection reaches, complete; and, in some disputed mountains, the author's decisions seem to be judicious. Of these there are ninety-nine on the continents, and ninety in the islands. Seventy-eight of the former are in America. Of the continental volcanoes, a large proportion is near the sea. The connexion we can only explain from this circumstance — that subterraneous fires are not uncommon, but that a coincidence of water is necessary to produce the explosion. Let it

however be recollected, that of the interior of Africa, and many parts of South America, we know little. Were these regions better explored, the disproportion might not be so great.

Of the mud volcanoes the account is curious. We shall select the description of one in the island of Taman, in the mouth of the river Cuban, in the Taurida. Another is in Sicily; and, during an eruption which ensued from it, the local temperature of the earth was lower than that of the surrounding air.

'This last eruption took place in February 1794. It was the greatest and most copious ever known. It happened at the top of a hill situated at the north point of Taman, near the bay of the same name. The appearance of the place seems to indicate that there had been a similar eruption at a period far back. The ground not covered over by the last is of the same nature as the more recent sediments; it is the same soil, with the difference only which vegetation and the atmospheric influence must necessarily produce.

'The place where the new gulf opened was a pool where the snow and rain-water usually remained for a long time. The explosion took place with a noise like that of thunder, and with the appearance of a mass of fire, in the form of a sheaf, which lasted only about half an hour, accompanied with a thick smoke. The ebullition which threw up a part of the liquid mud lasted till the next day: after which the mud continued running over slowly, and formed six streams, which made their way from the top of the hill to the plain. The body of mud collected by these streams is from three to five archines, that is, from six to ten feet deep, and may be reckoned more than a hundred thousand cubic fathoms—an effusion which approaches the marvellous! In July, which was the time Mr. Pallas visited the place, the surface of those beds of mud was dry, extremely uneven, and cracked like clayey ground. The gulf that had vomited them was stopped up with the mud which was likewise dry. It was not dangerous to walk over it, but it was frightful, as the horrid bubbling, which was then still heard in the interior of the hill, showed that its bowels were not so tranquil as its surface.

'The mud thus discharged is always a soft clay, of a bluish ash-colour, every where of the same nature, mixed with brilliant sparks of mica, with a small quantity of marly, calcareous, and sandy fragments of schist, which seem torn from the beds directly over the reservoir whence the explosion proceeds. Some crystals and sparkling laminæ of pyrites, found on these fragments, prove that the heat of the reservoir was not sufficiently powerful to affect the beds which contained those pyrites; nor was the mud discharged from the gulf more than lukewarm. The sheaf of fire was probably nothing more than the effect of the phlogistic air, which might have caused the explosion.' P. 257.

It must be remarked, that the whole of this country is gained from the sea; and the explosion seems evidently to arise from the expanding vapours, struggling for vent, without the assis-

tance of heat. M. Pallas thought it proceeded from the water reaching an old coal-mine which still remained on fire. Some other similar explosions are recorded. The burning springs are sufficiently known; but our author is not aware of the principle on which the inflammation depends, which is more commonly inflammable air than volatile bitumen: the difference of their nature is however inconsiderable.

When a volcano is extinguished, the fire, it is said, may be expected again to rage if the country be subject to earthquakes; and on this principle—though, as we have said, a doubtful one—our author promises security, or threatens danger.

Maritime and submarine volcanoes are considered at some length; and several curious facts are recorded on these subjects. We can add nothing to the little that we have said on the latter, for little is known. If, however, the submarine volcanoes resemble those on the shores, their eruptions must be of very short duration, and their discharges chiefly aqueous. This our author allows: but he differs from us in supposing the expanded air will throw off the water: we think the air, as it is called, to be produced by the access of the water, and that the steam and water will be ejected together. The subject is however obscure; and the probability may rather be, that these submarine volcanoes are expansions of air independent of heat. We believe many instances are recorded of islands being generated by volcanic fires. One has been formed in the neighbourhood of Iceland within a few years; and another we have lately mentioned, which was raised in the Indian seas, almost under the immediate inspection of two missionaries. The famous Atlantic territory was submerged, as our author thinks, by a volcanic explosion. It was in his opinion situated on the west of Spain, and may have been a part of the American continent.

We have been fuller in our account of this work than we intended. It is indeed a pleasing one, without any essential error. It contains much general information, but is too slight and superficial for the experienced naturalist. As the original is not before us, we cannot speak of the accuracy of the translation. It is, however, free and perspicuous, and appears to be faithful.

ART. V.—*The Poetical Works of John Milton, &c. By the Rev. Henry John Todd, M. A.* *(Continued from p. 254 of the present Volume.)*

THE fourth volume contains Paradise Regained and Samson Agonistes. The remarks which Mr. Dunster had subjoined in his edition of Paradise Regained to the end of each book, Mr. Todd

has connected, and prefixed as a preliminary discourse. To these he himself has added remarks on the origin of the poem.

'On this subject the Muses had not been before silent. In our own language, Giles Fletcher had published Christ's Victorie and Triumph, in 1611—an elegant and impressive poem in four parts, of which the second, entitled Christ's Triumph on Earth, describes the Temptation. To this poem, however, the Paradise Regained owes little obligation. Perhaps the Italian Muse might afford a hint. In the following sacred poem, consisting of ten books, "La Humanita del Figlivolo di Dio. In ottaua rima, per Theofilo Folengo, Mantoano. Venegia, 1533,' 4°. the fourth book treats largely of the temptation; from which I will cite the descriptive scene, after the devil has tempted our Lord, and has been rebuked with the reply "Thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, &c."

"Al suon di tanta, et tal sententia un grido
Lascia co 'l puzzo Satanoso, et sgombra,
Mà d'Angeletti biondi un stolo fido
Ecco à la mensa l' inuitar sott' ombra,
Quiui la fame sù l' herboso lido,
Che sol l' humanità del figlio ingombra,
Distrutta fù dapo 'l digiun sofferto,
Per suo non già, ma ben per nostro merto."

'There had been published also at Venice, in 1518, "La Vita et Passione di Christo, &c. composta per Antonio Cornozano. In terza rima." The subject of the sixth chapter of the first book is the Temptation: to which is prefixed a wooden cut, wherein Satan is represented as an old man with a long beard, offering bread to our Lord. The tempter indeed is an *aged man*, like the tempter of Milton, in Vischer's cuts to the Bible, as noticed by Mr. Thyer; and in Salvator Rosa's fine painting of the Temptation, as noticed by Mr. Dunster. See the Life of Milton in the first volume. The devil is also represented in a monastic habit by Luca Giordano, in a picture of the Temptation, which made a part of the Dusseldorp collection. But poetry likewise seems to have painted, not seldom, the *gray dissimulation* of the tempter in the same colours. Milton draws him in the habit of an aged Franciscan in his admirable verses *In Quint. Novembris*. There is a poem, entitled "Monachos mentiti Dæmones," in Wierus *De Præstigiis Dæmonum*, Basil. 1583, p. 84, in which the assumed disguise is somewhat similar:

"Ecce per obscuræ tenebrosa crepuscula noctis
Obtulit ignoti se noua forma viri.
Atro tectus erat monachum simulante cucullo,
Vtque solent, raso vertice tonsus erat."

'In Ross's description of the Temptation, *Christiados*, lib. viii. ed. 1638, p. 178, he is also thus painted, by the adaptation of Virgilian phrases:

"His actis, deserta petit spelæa ferarum:
Hic inter vastas rupes, atque horrida lustra,

Vsque quater denis jejunia longa diebus
Pertulit, et totidem sine victu noctibus ullo:
Hîc ad radices scopuli defessus Iësus
Consedit, stygiis expectans sedibus *hostem.*——
——— interea [Satan] *sese transformat in ora*
Terribili squalore senis, cui plurima mento
Canities inculta jacet, &c.
Sordidus ex humero nodo dependet amictus,
Et frontem obscenam rugis arat."

'There is an Italian poem, which I have not seen, entitled *Il Digiuno di Christo nel Deserto* by Giovanni Nizzoli, dated in 1611. And I observe also among the works of P. Antonio Glielmo (who died in 1644), enumerated by Crasso in his "Elogii d' huomini letterati," *Il Calvario Laureato, Poëma;* a kindred subject perhaps with that of Paradise Regained.' Vol. iv. P. xvii.

We have omitted the concluding sentence: it is not the only instance in which we have thought Mr. Todd too liberal of praise. The editor of Milton should have acquired a severer taste. He who is working upon jewels can surely distinguish gems from paste.

The remarks upon the defects of the poem are just.

'Doubtless the Paradise Regained, like the mild and pleasing brightness of the lesser luminary, will ever obtain its comparative admiration. The fine sentiments which it breathes, the pure morality which it inculcates, and the striking imagery with which it is frequently embellished, must commend the poem, while taste and virtue are respected, to the grateful approbation of the world. The versification indeed wants the variety and animation which so eminently distinguish the numbers of Paradise Lost. And it cannot but be acknowledged that the plan is faulty: for, to attribute the redemption of mankind solely to Christ's triumph over the temptations in the wilderness is a notion not only contracted, but untrue. The gate of everlasting life was opened, through the death and resurrection of our Lord. Dr. Bentley's remark has not yet been controverted: see the note on Paradise Lost, b. x. 182. I do not, however, think that Paradise Regained is without "allusions to poets either ancient or modern," as is insinuated in a preceding remark: it exhibits, on the contrary, several elegant imitations, interwoven with Milton's original graces, both of the classical and the romantic muses.' Vol. iv. P. 335.

The preliminary observations on Samson Agonistes are from the Rambler, N°s 139 and 140, and from Mr. Cumberland's Observer, N° 111. To the list of poems upon the same character may be added a Spanish epic, the Sanson Nazareno of Antonio Henriquez Gomez, one of the worst poems in the language. This volume is concluded by the catalogue of plans of other subjects, intended for tragedies by Milton.

The fifth volume contains Lycidas, L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, Arcades, Comus, and the Sonnets. Mr. Todd has given a curious epitaph on Mr. King, the subject of the monody written by a Mr. Booth of Corpus Christi.

" Heere lies the love of gentle hearts,
The cabinet of all the artes.
Heere lies Gramar, out of which
Mute fishes learn their parts of speech.
Heere lies Rhetorick all undone,
Which makes the seas more fluent runne.
And heere Philosophy was drown'd,
Which makes the seas farre more profound, &c."

' It concludes with this quaint couplet :

" Thus whilst poore breathing mortalls weepe,
The wit, and mirth, lies in the deepe." Vol. v. p. 6.

To these minor poems little could be added after the learned and copious annotations of Warton. Mr. Todd's labours, however, have not been vain. He gives the following beautiful extracts from a masque by Marston, of which the manuscript is in the possession of the duke of Bridgewater.

SONG by CYNTHIA.

" From ladies y^t are rudely coy,
Barring their loues from modest joy;
From ignorant silence, and proud lookes;
From those that aunswer out of bookes;
From those who hate our chast delight;
I blesse the fortune of each starry knight.
From gallants who still court with oathes;
From those whose only grace is cloathes;
From bumbast stockings, vile legg-makers;
From beardes, and greate tobecca-takers;
I blesse the fortune of each starry dame.
Singe, that my charme may be more stronge;
The goddes are bounde by verse and songe.

" *The Songe.*

" Audatious nighte makes bold the lippe;
Now all court chaster pleasure,
Whilst to Apollo's harpe you trippe,
And tread the gracing measure.
Now meete, now breake, then fayne a warlike salley;
So Cynthea sports, and so the godes may dalley, &c.

" During this songe the masquers presented theire sheelds, and tooke forth their ladyes to daunce.

" After they hadd daunced many measures, galliards, corantos, and lavaltos, the night being much spent; whilst the masquers

prepared themselues for theire departing measure, Cynthea spake thus:

" Now, pleasing, rest; for see the nighte
(Wherein pale Cynthea claimes her right)
Is allmost spent; the morning growes,
The rose and violett she strowes
Vppon the high cœlestiall floore,
'Gainst Phœbus rise from 's parramore:
The faieries, y^t^ my shades pursue
And bath theire feete in my colde dew,
Now leaue their ringletts and be quiett,
Least my brother's eye shoulde spy it.
Then now let every gratious starr
Auoide at sound of Phœbus' carr.
Into your proper place retyre
W^th^ bosomes full of beauties fier.
Hence must slide the queene of floodes,
For day beginnes to gilde the woodes.
Then whilst we singe, though you departe,
Ile sweare y^t^ heere you leaue yor harte.

" After this a shepherd sings 'a passionate ditty att my lady's departure:' he then presents the countess with a scarf, and adds,

" Farewell, farewell:
Joy, love, peace, health,
In you longe dwell;
W^th^ our farewell, farewell." Vol. v. p. 152.

Mr. Todd has already published Comus * separately. It is elaborately edited. The various lections are more numerous than those appended to any of the other poems. Our readers will be pleased to see the following beautiful lines, which Milton erased from the opening speech. They originally followed the fourth line.

Beyond the starry threshold of Jove's court
My mansion is, where those immortal shapes
Of bright aërial spirits live insphered
In regions mild of calm and serene air.

'Amidst th' Hesperian gardens, on whose banks
Bedew'd with nectar and celestiall songs,
Eternall roses grow, and hyacinth,
And fruits of golden rind, on whose faire tree
The scalie-harnest dragon ever keeps
His uninchanted eye; around the verge
And sacred limits of this blissful isle,
The jealous ocean, that old river, windes
His farre extended armes, till with steepe fall

* See our 24th vol. New Arr. p. 356.

'Halfe his wast flood the wild Atlantique fills,
And halfe the slow unfadom'd Stygian poole.
But soft, I was not sent to court your wonder
With distant worlds, and strange removed climes.'

Vol. v. p. 418.

The preliminary observations on the sonnets trace the history of the English sonnet from Surrey to Milton. By quoting miss Seward, it should appear that Mr. Todd agrees with her in preferring the Italian structure. It should be remembered that such a preference is contradicted as well by experience as theory. The sonnet has been revived by Charlotte Smith: her sonnets are assuredly the most popular in the language, and deservedly so; but they are almost all irregular. A Mr. White, quoted by the editor, says, 'it cannot be demonstrated that the regular sonnet suits not the nature or genius of our language.' We would weigh against this the assertion that 'it cannot be denied,' if experience did not show us that there are people foolish enough and obstinate enough to deny any thing. Mr. Todd observes that some of Constable's sonnets are written in lines of six feet. This is not uncommon; frequent examples may be found in those of sir Philip Sidney.

The sixth and last volume contains the odes, miscellanies, translations, and Latin poems. The epitaph upon Shakspeare appears to have been suggested by the following upon sir Thomas Stanley, written, according to sir William Dugdale, by Shakspeare himself:

"Aske who lies here, but do not weepe;
He is not dead, he doth but sleepe:
This stony register is for his bones,
His fame is more perpetuall than these stones;
And his own goodnesse, with himself being gone,
Shall live when earthly monument is none.
Not monumentall stone preserves our fame,
Nor skye-aspiring piramids our name;
The memory of him for whom this stands
Shall out-live marble and defacers' hands:
When all to time's consumption shall be given,
Stanley, for whom this stands, shall stand in heaven."

Vol. vi. p. 85.

This latter strikingly resembles the lines of Ben Jonson engraved upon Drayton's monument:

'And when thy ruines shall disclaim
To be the treasurer of his name,
His name, that cannot die, shall be
An everlasting monument to thee.'

The erudite annotations of Dr. Burney are prefixed to the Greek verses: the comments upon the Latin poems are chiefly by Warton, who every where, in censuring Milton's opinions, has been too ostentatious of his own.—Mr. Todd, in his concluding note, defends the prose of Milton.

'—There are various passages,' he says, 'in the English prose, besides the Tractate on Education and the Areopagitica, which seem entitled to the praise of the most impressive eloquence. Nor in his Latin performances are there wanting examples of pure as well as animated style. The accurate scholar seldom ceases to be visible either in the politician, in the controversialist, or in the secretary. Perhaps his English style is in general too learned. Of his History of England Warburton has said, that "it is written with great simplicity, contrary to his custom in his prose works; and is the better for it. But he sometimes rises to a surprising grandeur in the sentiment and expression, as at the conclusion of the second book, *Henceforth we are to steer*, &c. I never saw any thing equal to this but the conclusion of sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World." That Milton may be found virulent in these civil and religious speculations will not perhaps be denied: his pen, dipped as it sometimes is in the gall of puritanism, hurries him into the violence of rage; and he then condemns without mercy, as he judges without candour. But, at other times, his pages breathe the sweetest language of sensibility; the abusive spirit, which the turbulence of the times excited, sinks into calmness; and, without subscribing to his political sentiments, we are led to admire the uncommon felicity of his expression.' Vol. vi. p. 396.

This is but cold approbation. As a prose-writer, Milton is only equalled by Jeremy Taylor among his contemporaries, and Burke among after-writers.

An Appendix concludes the work. In this, Lauder's interpolations are noticed, and Robert Baron's Imitations of Milton's early Poems. The villany of the modern Erostratus needs not be mentioned here. Baron's plagiarisms are less generally known; they are wonderfully impudent;—witness what follows.

" Ring out, yee cristall spheares,
Once blesse our listning eares!
Let your sweet silver chime,
Keeping harmonious time,
Carroll forth your loud layes
In the winged wanton's praise.
Mab, thou majestick queene
Of fairies, be thou seene
To keepe this holiday,
Whilst we dance and play;
And frisk it as we goe
On the light fantastick toe.
The satyres and the fawnes
Shall nimbly crosse the lawnes:

Ore tawny sands and shelves
Trip it, yee dapper elves!
Dance by the fountaine brim,
Nymphes, deckt with daisies trim."

" Sol has quencht his glowing beame
In the coole Atlanticke streame:
Now there shines no tell-tale sun
Hymen's rites are to be done:
Now Love's revells 'gin to keepe,
What have you to do with sleepe?
You have sweeter sweets to prove,
Lovely Venus wakes, and Love,
Goddesse of nocturnall sport,
Alwaies keep thy jocond court, &c."

——— " Euphrosyne,
Right goddesse of free mirth, come lead with thee
The frolick mountaine nymph, faire Liberty,
Attended on by youthful Iollity."

" Hence, hence, fond Mirth; hence vain deluding joyes,
Glee and Alacritie, you be but toyes:
Goe, gilded elves, love's idle traine possesse
With fickle fancies, thick and numberlesse:
Sorrow the subject of my song shall be,
My harpe shall chant my heart's anxietie." Vol. vi. p. 402.

The work is properly finished with a glossarial index of words, phrases, customs, and persons, explained and mentioned in the notes.

In tracing the language and expressions of Milton to earlier writers, we think the various commentators have exhibited more learning than judgement. The following examples, taken from the volume before us, will explain and justify the charge.

' ——— *a darksome house of mortal clay.*] So, in The Scourge of Villanie, 1598. b. iii. sat. viii. of the soul leaving the body:

" Leauing his *smoakie house of mortall clay.*"

' ——— *by the* sun's team *untrod,*] Perhaps from Shakspeare's " heavenly-harness'd *team,*" Hen. IV. act ii. sc. iv. which Randolph imitates, Poems, 2d edit. 1640, p. 74.

——— " the *sunne,*
Where he *unharness'd,* and where's *teame* begunne."

' Sylvester has the *sun's* " tyer-less *teem,*" Du Bart. 1621, p. 84. Again, " The *sun* turns back his *teem,*" p. 226. In Kyd's Cornelia, 1595, we find Night's " slow-pac'd *team*;" and, in Fletcher's Faithful Shepherdess, Night's " lazy *team.*" Vol. vi. p. 5.

'——— *helmed*] So, in Par. Lost, b. vi. 840.

——— "o'er helms and *helmed* heads he rode."

'Drayton has "helmed head." Polyolb. s. viii. vol. ii. p. 800. WARTON.

'Chaucer has *helmed*, Tr. and Cr. ii. 593.

"By Mars the god, that *helmed* is of stele." Vol. vi. P. 12.

'*And Peace shall lull him in her flowery lap*;] So in Harrington's Ariosto, c. xlv. 1.

"Who long were *lul'd* on high in Fortune's *lap*."

'And in William Smith's Chloris, 1596.

"Whom Fortune never dandled in her *lap*."

'And in Spenser's Teares of the Muses, Terpsich. st. i.

"Whoso hath in the *lap* of soft delight
Been long time *lul'd*."

'We have the "*flowery lap* of some irriguous valley," Par. Lost, b. iv. 254. WARTON.

'See also Mir. for Magistrates, 1610, p. 327.

"Whilst Fortune false doth *lull* them in her *lap*."

'And in Certaine Selected Odes of Horace by John Ashmore, 4to. 1621, p. 17.

"In Fortune's *lap*, who then, but I,
By Venus *luld*-asleep did lie?" Vol. vi. P. 79.

Repeated instances of this kind occur in the work. But Milton, who had the mines of language at command, did not employ himself in raking up the rubbish of old metal. To Sylvester in particular he is supposed to be indebted. Doubtless he had profited by that writer's contortions and his wanton abuse of language, as the wise physician learns to cure from the quack who administers poison: but to suppose that for every peculiar word, for every double epithet, for every striking phrase, Milton is indebted to some predecessor—this surely is miserable trifling! As well might the fame of Raphaël be divided with his oil and colour dealer; as well might the flavour of the melon be attributed to the stable-refuse on which it was raised. We do not particularly apply this censure to Mr. Todd; it is more applicable to the rest of the firm. It might perhaps have been better if the imitations from various authors, instead of being noted as they occur, had been separately arranged: the reading of the poet would then have been more distinctly understood. Mr. Todd's edition, on the whole, is ably executed: it is a valuable and elaborate work, which must find its place in every gentleman's library.

ART. VI.—*The Beauties of England and Wales; or, Delineations, topographical, historical, and descriptive, of each County. Embellished with Engravings. By John Britton and Edward Wedlake Breyley. Vol. I.* 8*vo.* 13*s. Boards.* Vernor *and* Hood. 1801.

WE have already recommended to the public Mr. Britton's Beauties of Wiltshire; and the present work rivals the former in the merit of its engravings and the pleasing tenor of its style. The intention of our authors is to form a regular Britannia, or description of the chief objects in each county, alphabetically digested. The volume before us contains Bedfordshire, Berkshire, and Buckinghamshire.

'The subscribers to this work are respectfully informed, that the ardent desire of the editors to render the Introduction as complete as possible, and the time and extensive reading necessary to the full investigation and arrangement of the numerous and complex subjects it involves, have induced them to protract its publication till a more distant period. This delay, the expediency of which cannot be questioned even by those who consider the nature and extent of their design with but partial attention, will afford leisure for that review of British, Roman, and Saxon history, which the editors imagine will not only prove interesting from the variety of objects it includes, but will also elucidate the origin of many of the important national regulations, which have stamped a character on this island, given stability to its laws, and extension to its commerce.' P. i.

Besides a vignette of Donnington castle, and Leighton Beaudesert cross as a frontispiece, the volume contains the following engravings: 1. Ely cathedral; 2. Dunstable priory; 3. Windsor; 4. Windsor castle; 5. Buckingham; 6. Eton; 7. Stowe; 8. Downton castle; 9. Hampton court; 10. Church of St. Mary Ottery; 11. Badminton; 12. Chepstow.

We need not much enlarge on the descriptions, which are principally derived from Camden's Britannia and other authorities, and of course already familiar in a great degree to our readers, though here conveyed in a new and agreeable form. In Bedfordshire, the history of Woburn is one of the most interesting articles; and we shall extract the account of the pit which supplies that valuable substance called fuller's-earth, the exportation of which is rigorously prohibited. This we the rather select, as we observe that foreign mineralogists, in describing this substance, call it *terre de Hampshire*; while it is not found in that county, to the best of our information, but principally in the neighbourhood of Woburn in Bedfordshire, of Reading in Berkshire, and of Reygate in Surrey, at which last place have lately been discovered crystals of yellow barytes, like amber, interspersed in the fuller's-earth.

'The fuller-earth pits (or rather pit, for there is only one at present) in the vicinity of Woburn, are, according to the invariable assertions of preceding topographers, situated in Bedfordshire: but this is a mistake; the pits are certainly in Buckinghamshire, in the parish of Wavendon, or Wandon, as it is generally called. They are two miles north of Woburn, and about one furlong on the western side of the Northampton road, which, in this part, forms the boundary between the two counties for upwards of a mile. The more ancient pit, it is true, is in the county of Bedford, in the parish of Aspley, which adjoins to that of Wandon: but this has been disused for upwards of a century. It has large trees growing in it; and is become a secure and comfortable residence for the cunning fox, whose sagacity has taught him that he may live here unmolested and free from danger.

'As the pit so immediately borders on this county, and as the curious reader, judging from the practice of former writers, will undoubtedly refer to the neighbourhood of Woburn, when desirous of acquiring information on this subject, we trust that we shall not be charged with any impropriety of arrangement if the particulars we have been enabled to obtain concerning the invaluable substance under consideration are inserted in this place. The surface of the earth may be divided with artificial limits; but the interior strata, in this instance, is unquestionably continued in both counties.

'British cloth is chiefly indebted to the cleansing qualities of this celebrated earth, for its great superiority over that manufactured by other nations. In no other country is it found so free from foreign admixture; for this reason, as well as its importance in the woollen trade, several severe laws have been made, at different periods, since the reign of Charles the Second, to prevent its exportation. Nor are these acts of the British legislature without precedent. History informs us, that the fulling business was an object of Roman attention, and that laws were expressly made by that nation to regulate the employment.

'This earth is truly a marl, commonly of a greyish ash-coloured brown; yet it greatly varies, and is found of different shades, from the very pale, to the dusky, or almost black; but always with a tinge of the yellowish green. The pit at Wavendon consists of two tunnels; one with a ladder for the convenience of the labourers; the other to raise the earth up. The descent is very disagreeable, and the inside of the pit very damp. The wood-work on the top and sides of the excavated angles is continually wet, and almost covered with *boletus lacrymans* (dryrot boletus.) The strata are disposed in the following order.

'From the surface to the depth of six or seven feet are several layers of sand, all of a reddish colour, but of different tints. Beneath is a thin stratum of sand-stone, and under this the fuller's-earth. The upper stratum is about a foot thick; but being generally impure, or mixed with sand, it is thrown aside, and the rest is taken up for use. The earth is disposed in layers (commonly about eighteen inches between one horizontal fissure and another) continued to the depth of eight or ten feet. Between the centrical layers is a thin stratum of matter, of less than an inch, which in taste, colour, and

external appearance, bears a striking resemblance to *terra Japonica*. Beneath the whole is a bed of rough white free-stone, about two feet thick: this is seldom dug through; when it is, more strata are discovered. The depth of the pit varies, it being from twenty to thirty feet below the surface.

'Though fuller's-earth is of the most material service in cleansing cloth, and imbibing the tar, grease, tallow, &c. which, from the operation of many causes, is often mixed with the wool, yet the present price is scarcely sufficient to defray the expenses of raising it; being only ten shillings a ton, and the quantity sold not amounting to more than thirty tons annually. The labourers are occasionally employed, to the number of five, six, or seven, in proportion as the earth is wanted. The pit belongs to the duke of Bedford; and, as we understand, by a recent purchase. Its situation is nearly opposite to that in the parish of Aspley, which is also on the duke's estate. About twenty years since there was a pit in use on the estate of colonel Moore; but this has been levelled, and the field is now in pasturage. The earth lay about four feet from the surface.

'The few authors who have written on the topography of this county are unanimous in ascribing a petrifying quality to a small spring said to be in the parish just mentioned; and not only the water, but the surrounding earth also, is reported to partake of the same property. Camden informs us, that those who belonged to the monastery showed "a wooden ladder, which, after lying some time in the earth, was dug up all stone." The risible absurdity of this sentence can only be exceeded by the folly of Michael Drayton, poet-laureat to James the First, who inserted the following lines on this subject in his Polyolbion.

"The brook which on her bank doth boast that earth alone
Which, noted of this isle, converteth wood to stone,
That little Aspley's earth we anciently instile,
'Mongst sundry other things, a wonder of our isle."

'This wonder of the poet, like many more extraordinary circumstances, hath had its nine days of admiration payed by the gaping multitude. The story has now grown into general discredit; and we are informed, from the most unquestionable authority, that there is no such spring in the parish: yet we have heard of some bits of the petrified wood, said to have been obtained here, which appeared handsome when polished; and also, that a pair of buttons has been made of it. But we have said enough on a baseless subject, and, as the stream is wanting whose qualities could alone give the tale credibility, shall dismiss it with the common motto, *Ex nihilo, nihil fit*.' P. 39.

The catalogues of paintings are rather too long, and the biographical accounts, particularly those of foreigners, are extraneous to the nature of the work. When the author asserts, p. 59, that the forms of all ancient vases are supposed to 'have been taken from the calyx of the lotus, a celebrated water-plant well known in Upper Asia,' he shows the danger of advancing beyond a man's depth. There is no such country as Upper

Asia: if he mean Siberia, he errs *toto cœlo*; and, in the next place, the forms of the ancient vases are so infinitely diversified, that the idea in the eye of plain sense becomes a mere antiquarian dream. In p. 65 he is equally unfortunate, in asserting that the terms *honour* and *barony* were synonymous. The honour of Richmond contained, if we mistake not, more than a hundred baronies.

The following circumstance in the description of Biggleswade is, we believe, not generally known.

'On the 25th of February, 1792, a smart shock of an earthquake was felt here, about half past eight in the morning. It lasted several seconds, threw down some old houses, and much alarmed the inhabitants, though no lives were lost. The shock was felt northwards as far as Doncaster, whence it extended to the sea-coast of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire.' P. 75.

The ridiculous fable of the Thames and the Isis is justly opposed.

'The name of this river has occasioned many altercations; and though the general opinion has long been, that it does not receive the appellation of Thames till after its union with the Thame of Oxfordshire, yet this is evidently founded in error; for the former word is found in several charters granted to the abbey of Malmsbury, and likewise in some old deeds belonging to Cricklade, both of which places are in Wiltshire. But the most decisive proof is contained in a charter granted to the abbot Aldheim, where particular mention is made of certain lands upon the east part of the river, "Cujus vocabulum Temis juxta vadum qui appellatur Summerford;" i. e. whose name is Thames, near the ford called Summerford; and as this place is in Wiltshire, it is manifest that the river was named Temis, or Tems, in the uppermost part of its course; and long before its junction with the Thame. This evidence, which is inserted on the authority of Mr. Gough, was unknown to Camden, who imagines the term to be a compound, and has given considerable extracts in his Britannia from a fanciful poem, entitled the Marriage of the Thame and Isis, of which he is said to be the author.' P. 86.

This puerile fable is a disgrace to English topography, and only fit for pedants or school-boys.

In treating of the origin of the order of the garter, our author mentions the story of the countess of Salisbury as an idle tale, and gravely quotes Joshua Barnes and the Phœnicians. We wish Joshua Barnes and the Phœnicians were in his belly—to adopt the language of Falstaf,—and firmly believe in the countess of Salisbury and her garter. The author may look at the motto of Edward IV. for another instance of the intermixture of love and chivalry; but our wise antiquaries seem often inclined to leave human nature on the left hand. In p. 265 there is a pretty wooden print of that noted tree in Windsor forest called Herne's oak, executed by Mr. Anderson, a most ingenious artist. The

account of Frogmore, and the Windsor farms, we shall transcribe, as a novelty.

'The favourite residence of the queen has become celebrated through the elegant *fêtes* which have been occasionally given here by her majesty. It is situated about half a mile east of Windsor, and occupies part of a very fertile valley, which divides the little park from the forest, whence the many fine old oaks and elms which still decorate the gardens indicate it to have been separated. That it received its present appellation before Shakspeare's time is evident from some passages in his comedy of the Merry Wives of Windsor. This estate was formerly in the possession of sir Edward Walpole, and is now the private property of her majesty, by whom it was purchased of the honorable Mrs. Ann Egerton in 1792. Since that period it has not only been considerably enlarged, but most materially improved. An area of thirteen acres is laid out in a beautiful pleasure garden, diversified with a canal winding in different directions; in one part spreading its waters before the front of the house, and again retiring beneath the thick woods. In this sweetly sequestered spot every thing is serene and pleasant. The devious path, the umbrageous thicket, the dilapidated ruin, and secluded temple, all conspire to render it peculiarly interesting. Exclusive of the variety of indigenous and exotic trees and shrubs which are scattered through the grounds, the garden is ornamented with five buildings, respectively denominated the Gothic Temple, the Ruin, the Hermitage, the Temple of Solitude, and the Barn. The Ruin was erected from a design by Mr. Wyatt; and being seated on the water's edge, partly immersed in woods, and diversified with the creeping ivy and fractured wall, it constitutes a truly picturesque ornament, when seen from many points of view. The Hermitage is a small circular thatched building, situated in the south-west corner of the garden, and completely embowered with lofty trees. It was constructed from a drawing of the princess Elizabeth, whose taste and skill in this polite art are flattering encomiums on her genius and application. The surrounding scenery is judiciously contrived to assimilate with the character of the place—the view of every distant object being excluded by trees and underwood. The recent improvements and alterations made in the gardens are very considerable, and are highly creditable to the taste and judgement of the gentleman who directed the operations.

'The house, though not large, is a neat modern structure, which has been much improved and beautified by Mr. Wyatt. It is partly built with free-stone, and partly cased; and is decorated with a projecting colonnade towards the south, uniting the principal building with two uniform wings. The apartments are furnished in a plain but peculiarly neat manner. One of them is embellished with the original sketches by Mr. West, and paintings by miss Moser, that were copied to ornament the throne in the castle; and several others are decorated with paintings, and variety of drawings.

'The Great Park at Windsor reverted to his majesty on the death of the duke of Cumberland, in the year 1791, since which period it has undergone a variety of important alterations. The principal

entrance is skirted by a double row of majestic trees, "whose seeming boundless continuity fills the mind with an idea of something like infinitude; for the line is extended not only along the whole of a very spacious plain, but up the distant hill, over whose summit it appears to curve, so that nothing like termination is discernible." The eminence here mentioned commands a vast extent of country, of which Windsor town and castle, Eton college, Datchet, Harrow, Highgate, Hampstead, and Stanwell, constitute the leading features. Near this spot is Cumberland lodge, a spacious edifice, where the last duke of Cumberland, and his illustrious predecessor, to whom it was given in the year 1744, formerly resided.

'The park is embellished with some rich forest scenery, and possesses great diversity and inequality of surface; but the circumstances through which it more peculiarly demands attention are the agricultural experiments now making in its different quarters under the direction of his majesty, by whom many improvements in the state and general appearance of the grounds have already been effected. The valleys and low parts have been cleared, to give a bolder effect to the woody scenes on the eminences; and several judicious openings have been contrived to remove the disgusting tameness of parallel lines, and separate the plantations that appeared heavy and formal. When the park reverted to the king, it was found to contain about 3800 acres, abounding with moss, fern, rushes, and ant-hills, and rendered dangerous in many places by bogs and swamps. In this state its scanty produce hardly afforded sufficient nutriment for 3000 deer. Since that period "the wet parts have been rendered firm and sound by the Essex mode of underground draining; the rushes weakened and destroyed, by draining and rolling; the moss and small hillocks extirpated by harrowing; the large ant-hills cleared by the scarifier; the fern weakened by mowing; the irregular banks levelled; the pits filled up; the valleys opened; the hills ornamented with new plantations; the stiff lines of trees, the vestiges of hedge-rows, judiciously broken:" and the park, though now reduced to 2400 acres, "supports the same number of deer as before, in much better health and condition." The remaining 1400 acres have been disposed into two farms, respectively denominated from the nature of the mode of husbandry by which they were intended to be brought into culture.

'The Norfolk farm consists of about 1000 acres of light soil, bordering on the extensive waste called Bagshot-heath, hitherto considered as too barren for cultivation, though large tracts of similar quality have long since been rendered useful in the south-west part of Norfolk. Half this farm has been allotted to sheep-walks; the other is disposed in arable land, managed in a five-course shift of 100 acres in a class, and cropped in the following course: first, wheat or rye; second, vetches, rye, and potatoes; third, turnips; fourth, barley or oats; fifth, clover. The ploughing is chiefly performed with the Norfolk plough; and the ground, which in its former state was not worth renting at above five shillings an acre, now produces crops of more value than the original fee-simple of the land. This improvement in a great measure has been owing to the penning of the sheep on the fallows—from 600 to 800 Wiltshire

wethers being commonly kept as a folding stock. The irregularly-formed ground, which surrounds the beautiful lake called Virginia Water, has been disposed into a separate walk for Ryeland wethers, who are supposed to be best adapted to the coarseness of the herbage. The waste water of the lake gives motion to an overshot mill, which has been erected to grind corn for the labourers.

'In breaking up some of the land for this farm, it was found so coarse and tough, that it could not be cleared in the ordinary way without uncommon expense and labour. An experiment was therefore made, which, from the success attending it, seems worthy of insertion. "In the early part of the winter it was ploughed to a full depth with a swing plough, whose mould-board was so placed as to lay the turf in an inverted position. This was well trodden with cattle, and rolled, and the sheep occasionally drove over it. In the spring it was harrowed and cropped with oats, which were no sooner off than the surface was again harrowed and dragged, so as to get as much loose earth as possible without bringing up the turf. Early in autumn it was sown with winter vetches, and the beginning of June ploughed crossways, when the turf turned up quite rotten, and the land was got into a clean state by the first week in July. Both turnips and wheat were afterwards sown, and succeeded admirably."

'The Flemish farm contains about 400 acres, situated at the north extremity of the park, and originally intended to have been managed in exact accordance with the system employed in Flanders. This is a four-course shift, yielding an alternate crop for man and beast. The soil, however, being found strong and cohesive, the plan was in part relinquished, for the following more congenial mode: first year, wheat; second, cabbage or clover; third, oats; fourth, beans. The arable land on this farm is 160 acres.

'The comparative advantages of the labour of horses and oxen have long divided the opinions of experimental agriculturalists. The practice of his majesty has induced him to decide in favour of oxen, which have been found "to answer so well in his different farms, parks, and gardens, that not a horse is now kept" for the purposes of husbandry. The oxen kept on the farms, and in the park, are 200. Forty are yearly purchased as succession oxen; 40 are fatted and sold; and 120 are under work. The absurd practice of coupling the latter with yokes is abandoned, and collars only are used: in this state their step is more free, and their labour performed with much greater ease. The kinds employed are suited to the soil and business. On the light soils the Devonshire sort are used; on the strong and heavy the Herefordshire; for carting, harrowing, and rolling, the Glamorganshire. The working oxen are mostly divided into teams of six; and as one of that number is daily rested, no ox labours more than five days in the week. This treatment enables the animal to retain his strength with the ordinary keep. Harder labour and higher feed would be injurious; for the nature of the ox will not admit of his being kept in condition, like a horse, artificially, by proportioning his food to increased exertions. Their summer food is only a few vetches, and what they obtain from

the leasowes or coarse meadows: in winter they have cut hay and wheat straw, one third of the latter being mixed with two-thirds of the former.

'Besides the improvements that have been effected in the park with respect to agriculture, several valuable plantations have been made on the high grounds, and the natural beauty of the scenery increased by the grand masses of wood which begin to overrun the eminences. Many parts display a pleasing variety of hill, valley, wood, and water, where the picturesque and romantic are the prevailing characteristics. From some points the views are peculiarly interesting—their general composition bearing a striking resemblance to the celebrated scenery of the New Forest. Virginia Water terminates with a cascade, executed from designs by Paul Sandby, esq. This was formed with large masses of stone, obtained from the sandy soil of Bagshot-heath, by boring to various depths. These are placed with some degree of taste and judgement, though the disposition of the whole is rather stiff and formal. The surplus waters flow over the top, and are broken into several streams by projecting stones.' P. 266.

In forming artificial cascades, it might be advisable to have models taken from nature in Switzerland and other distant countries, so that any charge of formality might be obviated. The cascade of Virginia Water always pleased us; and, notwithstanding the common advance of this charge against it, we have seen natural cascades far more formal.

The account of Stoke Pogis becomes interesting from its having been the residence of Gray, perhaps the most strictly classical poet in the English language; and we must highly applaud Mr. Penn's taste and liberality in erecting a monument to that exquisite writer. Our readers will be pleased with the entire history.

'Stoke Pogis is a large scattered village, which obtained the appellation *Pogeis* from its ancient lords of that name. The heiress of this family, in the reign of Edward the Third, married lord Molines, who shortly afterwards procured a license from the king to convert the manor-house into a castle. From him it descended to the lords Hungerford, and from them to the Hastings, earls of Huntingdon, and seems afterwards to have been the residence of the lord-chancellor Hatton. Sir Edward Coke having married an heiress of the Huntingdon family, became the next possessor; and here, in the year 1601, he was honoured with a visit from queen Elizabeth, whom he entertained in a very sumptuous style. It was afterwards the seat of Anne, viscountess Cobham, on whose death the estate was purchased by Mr. William Penn, chief proprietor of Penn-sylvania in America, and now belongs to John Penn, esq. his grandson.

'The old manor-house furnished the subject for the opening of Gray's humorously descriptive poem called the Long Story, in which the style of building and fantastic manners of Elizabeth's reign are delineated with much truth.

'Gray, when a student at Eton, occasionally resided with his

aunt in this village, whose church-yard was the scene of his much-admired elegy. It was also the place of his interment; though neither friend nor relation raised a stone to his memory till the year 1799, when the genius of poetry animated the kindred bosom of Mr. Penn to perform the long-neglected task. The monument erected by this gentleman stands in a field adjoining the church, and forms the termination of one of the views from Stoke-house.

'It is composed with stone, and consists of a large sarcophagus, supported on a square pedestal, with incriptions on each side. Three of them are selected from the Ode to Eton College, and Elegy written in a Country Church-yard. The fourth is as follows:

'This monument, in honour of
Thomas Gray,
Was erected A. D. 1799,
Among the scenery
Celebrated by that great lyric and elegiac poet.
He died in 1771,
And lies unnoticed in the adjoining church-yard,
Under the tombstone on which he piously
And pathetically recorded the interment
Of his aunt, and lamented mother.

'Stoke-park is the seat of John Penn, esq. who within a few years has made it one of the most charming and magnificent residences in this part of the county. The house was built in the year 1789, from designs by James Wyatt, esq. since when it has experienced several judicious alterations and considerable additions. It is built chiefly with brick, and covered with stucco, and consists of a large square centre with two wings. The north, or entrance front, is ornamented with a colonnade, consisting of ten Doric columns, and approached by a flight of steps, leading to the marble hall. The south front, 196 feet in length, is also adorned with a colonnade, consisting of twelve fluted columns of the old Doric order. Above this ascends a projecting portico, of four Ionic columns, sustaining an ornamental pediment. The marble hall is oval, and contains four fine marble busts, supported on scagliola pedestals. The whole interior length of the south front is intended to be occupied by an elegant and well-stored library. Besides several good portraits by Lely and Kneller, the following pieces are deserving attention.

'A large picture, containing four children of the Penn family, in a landscape, by sir Joshua Reynolds. This very fine picture may be classed with those which obtained our great English artist his deserved celebrity. The colouring is chaste and perfect, the composition is excellent, and the drawing correct.

'Three children of king Charles the First. There are so many duplicates of this exquisite picture, that we are led to suspect the originality of every one, except where it is accompanied with demonstrative evidence. The present picture, we are assured, is a true Vandyck, whose name it bears. It is finely coloured, and in good preservation.

'William Penn, the founder of Penn-sylvania, a half length.

This celebrated quaker was painted in armour about the age of twenty-two.

'The park, though rather flat, commands some very fine views, particularly to the south, where the eye is directed over a large sheet of water to the majestic castle of Windsor, beyond which Cooper's-hill, and the forest woods, close the prospect. A large lake winds round the east side of the house, with a neat stone bridge thrown over it. The lake was originally formed by Richmond, but it has been considerably altered by Repton, who also directed the laying out of the park. About 300 yards from the north front of the house is a handsome fluted column, sixty-eight feet high, lately erected from a design by Mr. Wyatt. On the top is a colossal statue of sir Edward Coke, by Rosa.' P. 394.

Upon the whole, this is a very decent and pleasing work, and we wish the editors success in the progress of their design.

ART. VII.—*The Magus, or Celestial Intelligencer; being a complete System of occult Philosophy. In Three Books: containing the ancient and modern Practice of the Cabalistic Art, Natural and Celestial Magic, &c. showing the wonderful Effects that may be performed by a Knowledge of the Celestial Influences, the occult Properties of Metals, Herbs, and Stones, and the Application of active to passive Principles:—exhibiting the Sciences of natural Magic; Alchymy, or Hermetic Philosophy; also the Nature, Creation, and Fall of Man; his natural and supernatural Gifts; the Magical Power inherent in the Soul, &c.; with a great Variety of rare Experiments in natural Magic: the Constellatory Practice, or Talismanic Magic; the Nature of the Elements, Stars, Planets, Signs, &c.; the Construction and Composition of all Sorts of Magic Seals, Images, Rings, Glasses, &c.; the Virtue and Efficacy of Numbers, Characters, and Figures, of good and evil Spirits. Magnetism, and Cabalistical or Ceremonial Magic; in which the secret Mysteries of the Cabala are explained; the Operations of good and evil Spirits; all Kinds of Cabalistic Figures, Tables, Seals, and Names, with their Use, &c. The Times, Bonds, Offices, and Conjuration of Spirits. To which is added, Biographia antiqua, or the Lives of the most eminent Philosophers, Magi, &c. The whole illustrated with a great Variety of curious Engravings, Magical and Cabalistical Figures, &c. By Francis Barrett, F.R.C. Professor of Chemistry, natural and occult Philosophy, the Cabala, &c. &c.* 4to. 1*l.* 7*s.* *Boards.* Lackington *and* Co. 1801.

IN vain do we boast of the progress of philosophy;—for, behold! in the beginning of the nineteenth century appears a work which ought not to have surpassed the fifteenth. The prefixed portrait of the author seems rather to indicate weak-

ness than roguery; yet we are led to imagine that this compilation is a kind of advertisement intended to inform the public of a new cunning man.

In his preface, this philosopher of darkness gravely assumes the plural number; and, among other pieces of authentic information, may be mentioned the following.

'We have likewise proved how cures are performed by virtue of sympathetic powers and medicines—by seals, rings, and amulets, even at unlimited distances, which we have been witnesses of, and are daily confirmed in the true and certain belief of. We know how to communicate with any person, and to give him intimation of our purpose, at a hundred or a thousand miles distance; but then a preparation is necessary, and the parties should have their appointed seasons and hours for that purpose; likewise, both should be of the same firm constancy of mind, and a disciple or brother in art. And we have given methods whereby a man may receive true and certain intimation of future things (by dreams), of whatsoever his mind has before meditated upon, himself being properly disposed.' P. vii.

It would be loss of time to criticise with gravity so weak and ignorant a book; nor need the powers of ridicule be exerted against follies long since exploded. We shall therefore content ourselves with a few extracts, chiefly calculated for the reader's amusement. In treating of natural magic, our author thus proceedeth:

'It is likewise told Eve, after her transgression, that she should bring forth in pain. Therefore, what hath the pain of bringing forth common with the eating of the apple, unless the apple had operated about the concupiscence of the flesh, and by consequence stirred up copulation; and the Creator had intended to dissuade it, by dehorting from the eating of the apple. For why are the genital members of women punished with pains at child-birth, if the eye in seeing the apple, the hands in cropping it, and the mouth in eating it, have offended? for was it not sufficient to have chastised the life with death, and the health with very many diseases? Moreover, why is the womb afflicted, as in brutes, with the manner of bringing forth, if the conception granted to beasts were not forbidden to man?' Book i. P. 19.

'And, seeing the faunii and nymphs of the woods were preferred before the others in beauty, they afterwards generated their offspring amongst themselves, and at length began wedlocks with men, feigning that by these copulations they should obtain an immortal soul for them and their offspring; but this happened through the persuasions and delusions of Satan to admit these monsters to carnal copulation, which the ignorant were easily persuaded to; and therefore these nymphs are called *succubii*: although Satan afterwards committed worse, frequently transchanging himself, by assuming the persons of both incubii and succubii, in both sexes; but they con-

ceived not a true young by the males, except the nymphs alone. The which, indeed, seeing the sons of God (that is, men) had now, without distinction, and in many places, taken to be their wives, God was determined to blot out the whole race begotten by these infernal and detestable marriages, through a deluge of waters, that the intent of the evil spirit might be rendered frustrate.

'Of which monsters before mentioned I will here give a striking example from Helmont: for he says, a merchant of Ægina, a countryman of his, sailing various times unto the Canaries, was asked by Helmont for his serious judgement about certain creatures which the mariners frequently brought home from the mountains, as often as they went, and called them *tude-squils*; for they were dried dead carcases, almost three-footed, and so small that a boy might easily carry one of them upon the palm of his hand, and they were of an exact human shape; but their whole dead carcase was clear or transparent as any parchment, and their bones flexible like gristles; against the sun also their bowels and intestine were plainly to be seen; which thing I, by Spaniards there born, knew to be true. I considered that to this day the destroyed race of the Pygmies were there; for the Almighty would render the expectations of the evil spirit, supported by the abominable actions of mankind, void and vain; and he has therefore manifoldly saved us from the craft and subtilty of the devil, unto whom eternal punishments are due, to his extreme and perpetual confusion, unto the everlasting sanctifying of the divine name.' Book i. p. 23.

In this passage, as throughout the work, the author's ignorance is deplorably apparent. His plurals *faunii* and *incubii*, and his supposition that a merchant of Ægina could be a countryman of Helmont, evince a mind untinctured with the least colour of learning; as was indeed to have been expected from the very nature of the subject.

'Likewise of the virtues of simple animals, as well as manual operations, of which we shall speak more anon.—The application of hare's fat pulls out a thorn;—likewise any one may cure the tooth-ache with the stone that is in the head of the toad;—also, if any one shall catch a living frog before sun-rise, and he or she spit in the mouth of the frog, will be cured of an asthmatic consumption;—likewise the right or left eye of the same animal cures blindness; and the fat of a viper cures a bite of the same. Black hellebore easeth the head-ache, being applied to the head, or the powder snuffed up the nose in a moderate quantity. Coral is a well-known preservative against witchcraft and poisons, which if worn now, in this time, as much round children's necks as usual, would enable them to combat many diseases which their tender years are subjected to, and to which, with fascinations, they often fall victims. I know how to compose coral amulets, or talismans, which, if suspended even by a single thread, shall (God assisting) prevent all harms and accidents of violence from fire, or water, or witchcraft, and help them to withstand all their diseases.

'Paracelsus and Helmont both agree, that in the toad, although

so irreverent to the sight of man, and so noxious to the touch, and of such strong violent antipathy to the blood of man—I say, out of this hatred Divine Providence hath prepared us a remedy against manifold diseases most inimical to man's nature. The toad hath a natural aversion to man; and this sealed image, or idea of hatred, he carries in his head, eyes, and most powerfully throughout his whole body. Now that the toad may be highly prepared for a sympathetic remedy against the plague or other disorders, such as the ague, falling sicknesses, and various others; and that the terror of us, and natural inbred hatred may the more strongly be imprinted and higher ascend in the toad; we must hang him up aloft in the chimney by the legs, and set under him a dish of yellow wax, to receive whatsoever may come down, or fall from his mouth. Let him hang in this position, in our sight, for three or four days, at least till he is dead. Now we must not omit frequently to be present in sight of the animal, so that his fears and inbred terror of us, with the ideas of strong hatred, may increase even unto death.' Book i. p. 25.

'Rhubarb, on account of its violent antipathy to choler, wonderfully purges the same. Music is a well-known specific for curing the bite of a tarantula, or any venomous spider; likewise, water cures the hydrophobia. Warts are cured by paring off the same, or by burying as many pebbles secretly as the party has warts. The king's-evil may be cured by the heart of a toad worn about the neck, first being dried.—Hippomanes excites lust by the bare touch, or being suspended on the party. If any one shall spit in the hand with which he struck or hurt another, so shall the wound be cured; —likewise, if any one shall draw the halter wherewith a malefactor was slain across the throat of one who hath the quinsey, it certainly cures him in three days;—also, the herb cinquefoil being gathered before sun-rise, one leaf thereof cures the ague of one day; three leaves cures the tertian; and four the quartan ague. Rape-seed sown with cursings and imprecations grows the fairer, and thrives; but if with praises, the reverse. The juice of deadly nightshade, distilled, and given in a proportionate quantity, makes the party imagine almost whatever you choose. The herb nip, being heated in the hand, and afterwards you hold in your hand the hand of any other party, they shall never quit you so long as you retain that herb. The herbs arsesmart, comfrey, flaxweed, dragon-wort, adder's-tongue, being steeped in cold water, and if for some time being applied on a wound or ulcer, they grow warm, and are buried in a muddy place, cureth the wound or sore to which they were applied. Again; if any one pluck the leaves of asarabacca, drawing them upwards, they will purge another, who is ignorant of the drawing, by vomit only; but if they are wrested downward to the earth, they purge by stool. A sapphire, or a stone that is of a deep blue colour, if it be rubbed on a tumor wherein the plague discovers itself, (before the party is too far gone,) and by-and-by it be removed from the sick, the absent jewel attracts all the poison or contagion therefrom. And thus much is sufficient to be said concerning natural occult virtues, whereof we speak in a mixed and miscellaneous manner, coming to more distinct heads anon.' Book i. p. 29.

The following sentences, p. 66, are curious.

'Perhaps, I do not doubt but, there are some that will say, when they look at our works, this fellow is all rant, all preaching—he tells us what we knew before as well as himself. To such I say, let them read our book but twice; if they do not gather something that they will acknowledge precious, (nay, be convinced that it is precious, to their own satisfaction) I will burn these writings, and they shall be no more remembered by me.' Book i. p. 66.

In this we are inclined to believe the author; for not the philosopher's stone itself should tempt us to read the book twice.

'Furthermore, that there are miraculous ecstasies belonging to the more inward man is beyond dispute. That there are also ecstasies in the animal man, by reason of an intense or heightened imagination, is without doubt. Martin del Ris, an elder of the society of Jesus, in his Magical Disquisitions or Inquiries, makes mention of a certain young man in the city Insulis that was transported with so violent a desire of seeing his mother, that through the same intense desire, as if being rapt up by an ecstasy, he saw her perfectly, although many miles absent from thence; and, returning again to himself, being mindful of all that he had seen, gave many true signs of his true presence with his mother.

'Now that desire arose from the more outward man, viz. from blood and sense, or flesh, is certain; for, otherwise, the soul being once dislodged, or loosened from the bonds of the body, cannot, except by miracle, be re-united to it; there is therefore in the blood a certain ecstatical or transporting power, which, if at any time shall be excited or stirred up by an ardent desire and most strong imagination, it is able to conduct the spirit of the more outward man even to some absent and far distant object; but then that power lies hid in the more outward man, as it were in *potentia*, or by way of possibility; neither is it brought into act unless it be roused up by the imagination, inflamed and agitated by a most fervent and violent desire.' Book ii. p. 12.

In this passage, *Del Ris* should be *Delrio*; and the city *Insulis* happens to be *Lisle*.

We shall conclude with the following advertisement, which we believe to be intended as the chief nostrum in the book.

'The author of this work respectfully informs those who are curious in the studies of art and nature, especially of natural and occult philosophy, chemistry, astrology, &c. &c. that having been indefatigable in his researches into those sublime sciences, of which he has treated at large in this book, that he gives private instructions and lectures upon any of the above-mentioned sciences; in the course of which he will discover many curious and rare experiments. Those who become students will be initiated into the choicest operations of natural philosophy, natural magic, the cabala, chemistry, the talismanic art, hermetic philosophy, astrology, physiognomy, &c. &c.

Likewise they will acquire the knowledge of the rites, mysteries, ceremonies, and principles of the ancient philosophers, magi, cabalists, adepts, &c.—The purpose of this school (which will consist of no greater number than twelve students) being to investigate the hidden treasures of nature; to bring the mind to a contemplation of the eternal wisdom; to promote the discovery of whatever may conduce to the perfection of man; the alleviating the miseries and calamities of this life, both in respect of ourselves and others; the study of morality and religion here, in order to secure to ourselves felicity hereafter; and, finally, the promulgation of whatever may conduce to the general happiness and welfare of mankind.—Those who feel themselves thoroughly disposed to enter upon such a course of studies, as is above recited, with the same principles of philanthropy with which the author invites the lovers of philosophy and wisdom to incorporate themselves in so select, permanent, and desirable a society, may speak with the author upon the subject, at any time between the hours of eleven and two o'clock, at 99, Norton-street, Mary-le-bonne.

'Letters (post paid) upon any subject treated of in this book, will be duly answered, with the necessary information.' Book ii. P. 140.

We cannot guess the meaning of the letters F. R. C. appended to the author's name, except they imply Fellow of a Roguish Company.

The magical biography at the end corresponds with the rest in nonsense and credulity.—*Apage!*

ART. VIII.—*Notes, Critical and Dissertatory, on the Gospel and Epistles of St. John. By the Rev. R. Shepherd, D. D. &c. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards.* Mawman.

THIS volume, we are informed by the author, was printed several years since—at which time a few copies only were permitted to pass out of his hands, one of which was presented to the bishop of Durham. His lordship condescended, we are told, to notice some errors, and to make some 'judicious observations' on the work; but as these observations are not presented to us, we can only presume, from the general character of his lordship, that 'a significant objection,' as the author terms it, offered by the worthy prelate to his consideration, referred to the doctrines maintained in this extraordinary publication, and was followed up by a remonstrance against its appearance in the world under the sanction of a member of the church of England. But we begin to cease from all surprise at any thing in our ecclesiastical œconomy. The Athanasian creed has been lately impugned by a prelate: and the doctrine of the Trinity, as maintained in that creed and in our articles, and as it runs through the whole of our liturgy, is now severely im-

pugned by an archdeacon. The Articles doubtless stand in the way of this mode of treating the church; and we were prepared by the preface to this strange production for what we were to expect in the body of the work itself.

'By the 6th, the 20th, and the 21st Articles of our church, I conceive myself not only authorised but invited to study the sacred scriptures, to investigate the sense and meaning of every passage, and more particularly of every difficult and doubtful passage in them, and by them to examine every doctrine of every church. The thirty-nine Articles may be considered—to express myself in the language of the law—as constituting a deed consisting of a number of detached clauses. And as there is in every deed a particular and ruling object, and applying to that object a primary and principal clause, which involves the jet that pervades and governs the whole, and to which every doubtful clause is subordinate and referable—such I conceive to be the nature, force, and consequence of the three articles to which I have alluded, and particularly the sixth, in respect to the general code consisting of thirty-nine. Supported by that Article, and resting on the full and true intent and meaning of it, an honest and conscientious man may, I conceive, subscribe to the whole code, the valuable legacy of our great and good reformers; though, after a diligent investigation of the subject, he may not in every Article exactly agree in the sense and signification of the Scripture, on which the compilers framed it. And on that ground I have no doubt that bishop Burnet and Dr. Bennet, who both wrote on the thirty-nine Articles, and both agree that the compilers of them did not appear in the eleventh Article to have understood the true sense of St. Paul, subscribed their assent to it; for they must either have affixed their own sense to that Article, or have subscribed their assent to it in what they thought a false one.' P. XV.

We request our readers to peruse again and again the above extract, and to compare it with the sophistry we have so frequently and so unfortunately had occasion of late to bring to their notice, as adopted by the Cambridge divines on subscription to the Articles. 'An honest and conscientious man may subscribe,' it seems, though he do not accede to every article: and of course our author himself, according to his own system, has not by his subscription resisted the dictates of his conscience; though the main article in which he differs from the compilers of the articles at large is that in which almost all the Christian churches in the world are united, and which forms a fundamental article of our own church.

'But' (continues our author) 'if there were in the whole code of Articles a single one that, on the ground of Scripture, would not bear a candid and impartial investigation, such as might be expected from the two respectable writers cited above, it would, with due submission I conceive, afford a powerful plea for the revisal of them; which, unless my ideas of truth and the power of it deceive me, would con-

duce much to the interests of religion, and not less to the security and tranquillity of the established church. And such my fallible judgement I do with the more confidence advance; as two respectable characters, now deservedly promoted to very high stations in the church, some years ago not only expressed their wishes to see it effected, but were active in their exertions to promote it.' P. xvii.

Doubtless there is a necessity for a revisal of the articles: for if, in one diocese, a bishop objects to a part of the liturgy, an archdeacon to an article on the divinity of Christ, and a parish priest of great eminence thinks lightly of the articles relative to discipline, it is incumbent on the heads of the church to inquire into the real state of the controversy, and either to alter the articles agreeably to the new modes of belief, or to enforce a full acquiescence in them, consistently with the terms of subscription as prescribed by the law of the land.

From the Gospel according to St. John divines have presumed to deduce several strong arguments that Jesus Christ, touching his divine nature, was in no respect 'before nor after' the first and third persons of the Trinity; that he is equal to the Father as to his godhead, but inferior to the Father as to his manhood. All these arguments, however, have no weight with our author; the chief drift of his work being to show that they are without foundation, and that Jesus Christ, in both his divine and human nature, is inferior to the Father. 'There is nothing,' says our author, 'which Jesus more repeatedly disclaims than equality with God. The Father and the Son cannot be the one same God supreme.' Christ is—

'—a superior being, who should know no corruption: a prince, of whose kingdom there should be no end: whose generation none should be able to declare: a God with us: and though a Being other than, and inferior to, the supreme, self-existent, indivisible God, even the Father, of origin very different from that of mere man, of nature supra-human and divine.' P. 63.

In a note on chap. xiii. 20, we find our author declaring that in this verse 'the superiority of Christ to his disciples is asserted, and by the same rule of judging is marked the superiority of the father to Christ.' The same sentiment is more strongly expressed in a note on chap. xx. 17.

'Our Lord had now put off mortality: he was no longer a human being; though he was not perfected in glory. Yet existing in such superior state, he styles the supreme God, even the Father, whose delegate he had been on earth, *his* God, as well as the God of his disciples, the universal Father, the God of Gods and Lord of Lords. Hence then it is very clear, that God the Father was the God of our Saviour after his resurrection: and what authority have we for supposing he was not such after our Lord's ascension? Or rather, if he declare so expressly, so unequivocally, that he was going to his

God, doth not the common import of language instruct us that his God to whom he was going was likewise his God when he arrived there: the same God and Father who first *sent* him, from whom he issued, and to whom he returned? St. Paul seems to have thought so, as appears in his Epistle to the Ephesians, chap. i. ver. 3. "Blessed be the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ." P. 226.

In consistency with this mode of interpreting the Scriptures, the first epistle of John, chap. i. 3, affords another opportunity to our author of bringing forward his favorite doctrine.

'In this passage not only the Father is distinguished from Jesus Christ then ascended into heaven and seated on the right hand of the throne of glory, but God the Father is distinguished from the Lord Jesus Christ: and such distinction of course destroys all ideas of identity. If the Father be emphatically styled God, and Jesus Christ in contradistinction be styled Lord, no rule of grammar, no construction of language, will authorise us to acknowledge that Jesus Christ be the same God that the Father is, who is emphatically and distinguishly so denominated.' P. 342.

Even the strong passage in St. Paul, which is considered as one of the most potent arguments in Scripture in favour of the co-equal godhead of Christ, is said by our author to be a convincing proof to the contrary.

'One property of Almighty God is immutability. *I am the Lord, I change not.* This assertion therefore of the apostle, *he emptied himself of his glory*, affords a powerful argument that our blessed Saviour, though in the form or character of God, was not himself the God supreme. As sure as he could not change, he could not empty himself of his glory. And with the voice of Scripture reason concurs in assuring us of the unchangeableness of Almighty God. He cannot change for the better, because he is infinitely perfect; he cannot change for the worse, because he would then cease to be infinitely perfect, i. e. cease to be what he necessarily is.' P. 366.

We might extract a great number of similar passages; for the writer is careful not to let slip any opportunity of introducing the inferiority of Christ to the Father, with respect even to his divine nature, or of attacking the Socinians on their disbelief of his pre-existence: in short, the author explains the whole of the Gospel upon Arian principles, and is, consequently, just as much out of the pale of the church as any disciple of Socinus whatever. He may indeed not be so widely distant; but there cannot be a doubt that the whole of this explanation is diametrically contrary to the spirit of the church Articles: and as long as these Articles are of any authority, as long as the doctrine of the Trinity is considered to be orthodox, as long as our liturgy remains unaltered, the man who maintains the doctrines we have extracted from this work withdraws himself from the au-

thority of the Articles, must be reputed heterodox, and cannot, without the utmost inconsistency, adopt the established prayers.

But, though it be incumbent on us to point out the general tendency of the work, we must not deny to the writer the credit which is due to him for the attention he has paid, according to his own system, to the interpretation of the Scriptures; and both the Athanasian and Socinian may derive instruction from his pages. It is too customary with persons on all sides of the question to lay a stress on every text which seems to bear at all in their own favour; although by such means they do not in the least increase the confidence of their own abettors, while they alienate in a very high degree the minds of the opposite party. Thus an injudicious advocate for orthodoxy finds in the two first words of St. John's Gospel (εν αρχη) a proof of the doctrine of the Trinity, and exposes himself to deserved censure: for, if we may not subscribe to the Arian opinion maintained in this work, or to the interpretations of different Socinians, we must concede to both parties that these two words do not refer to the period commonly meant by the term *eternity*. The argument, from the application of the definite article to Θεος, *God*, in two parts of the first verse, and the absence of it when it becomes the predicate of a proposition to which Λογος is the subject, is reviewed with much precision; and the observations are sufficient to prevent any great stress from being laid on this verse, as to the mode of divinity predicated of the Λογος in the context. From the reasons given for the writer's interpretation of πρωτος μου, that by it nothing but priority of time could possibly be meant, we must beg leave to differ; 'for, as to mundane and temporal greatness,' says the author, 'the Baptist was Christ's superior: he was the son of a priest; whereas our Lord was the supposed son of a very inferior character.' Temporal greatness is here falsely estimated; and besides the supernatural birth of our Saviour, with which John could not be unacquainted, he knew him to be the son of David, which gave him higher pretensions than could belong to any priest whatever, much more to the son of a priest of inferior rank. A most extraordinary turn given to a plain passage in Scripture we find on the confession of Nathaniel; on which our author remarks, that—

'—faith in the incarnation of God was then, we find, the great mystery of godliness—all the faith which Jesus himself required of his immediate disciples. But in that faith in the incarnation of the Son of God many articles of belief are included, which were afterwards gradually evolved; such as redemption from sin, the dispensing power of death and salvation, &c. And after he rose from the dead, belief in his resurrection was added, and particularly insisted on by his apostles as an article of faith necessary to salvation. And

this acknowledgment of Nathaniel's faith accords very closely with the explanation of the doctrines of Christianity, which Justin Martyr, in the second century, delivered to Rusticus, prefect of Rome, on his requisition of them.' P. 25.

But the words of Nathaniel have surely in that passage no reference at all to the prior existence of Christ, whether, as a Jew, that doctrine were open to him or not; for his faith consisted in the confession that the person to whom he spoke was the Messiah, the king of Israel.

Our limits will not permit us to expatiate farther on this extraordinary publication; nor could we well do it, without entering into a controversy in which the public at large seems to take little interest;—and, indeed, the moment the trinity in the godhead is denied, it seems to be of little consequence whether we adopt the high or low Arian, or the Socinian opinion of the character of Christ. The latitude assumed by this writer in the interpretation of some texts cannot in justice be denied to the Socinian, who will be quite satisfied with the support he receives from his antagonist on the main question, in which they are equally at issue with the church: and surely it was not the part of a churchman to put arms into the hands of an adversary to that establishment from which he receives both dignity and emolument! We cannot believe that we are the only persons who recommend to the writer to re-consider his opinions, in connexion with his office.

ART. IX.—*Lectures on Painting, delivered at the Royal Academy, March* 1801, *by Henry Fuseli, P. P. With additional Observations and Notes.* 4*to.* 12*s. Boards.* Johnson. 1801.

THESE lectures display a considerable degree of reading and knowledge of the subject; and our ingenious artist even affects to quote Greek. But the chief object in a work of this nature should be to present a just and pure taste; and we here observe with regret too many traces of that singularity which distinguishes the pencil of Mr. Fuseli. His paintings indeed have attracted more notice from this circumstance than from their pretensions to elegance or sublimity; and in his whole exhibition of devils we did not observe one piece of distinguished merit. Michael Angelo, comparing the vigour and spirit of the ancient representations with the tameness of his own times, not only recurred to them with superior force and effect, but, as usual in such cases, rather proceeded to the opposite extreme, and outstepped the modesty of nature. There are many positions of which the human form is capable, and

many arrangements of the features which are merely momentary; and to eternise them in statuary or painting is to offer a violence to the passions, which is always disgustful to the man of taste and sobriety. We believe our readers will unanimously agree that such is the effect of many of Mr. Fuseli's productions, which as far overstep Michael Angelo as this latter ever overstepped nature herself. The question ought not to be, what position the human form will admit of, or what violence certain passions may impart to the features, but what position and what violence will bear to be perpetuated in sculpture or painting? Yet this plain argument seems always and totally to have escaped the recollection of Mr. Fuseli, whose radical fault consists in a constant opposition to it. We need not go far for an example; for in the title-page of this very volume is a female figure damned to such a posture as no human being could sustain for five minutes, without the most excruciating head-ach. Mr. Fuseli thus reminds us of those wonderful artists on the violin, who make it exhibit every thing except the production of good melody. If the cause of this defect be the want of good sense, *our lecture* will be vain; but as Mr. Fuseli has great capabilities, we hope he will profit by it, and dismiss those extravagant postures and contortions which, if they could ever occur in real life, would be viewed with utter disgust, and which become still more disgusting by being perpetuated.

As the question of just taste is a principal object in a treatise on painting, we have been constrained to estimate the taste of the new professor of painting in the Royal Academy by that best criterion—his own works. We now return to this book merely as a literary production, after expressing the deepest sorrow and the most unfeigned regret that the professor of painting to the English school should be a foreigner, and that foreigner a Swiss!—*Boni Dii!* a Swiss teach the principles of taste! In how many strange points of view might an Italian, or even a French or Spanish painter place this singular phænomenon! With an utter contempt for all national prejudices, and an open heart for the learned and ingenious of every climate under the sun, we still must think it the height of absurdity that our English schools should have any instructor but one of their own countrymen.

As a specimen of the work before us, we shall select the beginning of the first lecture, which presents the plan, and is, upon the whole, the most favorable that could have been produced.

'The difficulties of the task prescribed to me, if they do not preponderate, are at least equal to the honour of the situation. If, to discourse on any topic with truth, precision, and clearness, before a mixed or fortuitous audience, before men neither initiated in the

subject, nor rendered minutely attentive by expectation, be no easy task; how much more arduous must it be to speak systematically on an art before a select assembly composed of professors whose life has been divided between theory and practice; of critics whose taste has been refined by contemplation and comparison; and of students who, bent on the same pursuit, look for the best and always most compendious method of mastering the principles, to arrive at its emoluments and honours. Your lecturer is to instruct them in the principles of "composition; to form their taste for design and colouring; to strengthen their judgement; to point out to them the beauties and imperfections of celebrated works of art; and the particular excellencies and defects of great masters; and, finally, to lead them into the readiest and most efficacious paths of study."—If, gentlemen, these directions presuppose in the student a sufficient stock of elementary knowledge; an expertness in the rudiments—not mere wishes, but a peremptory will of improvement and judgement with docility—how much more do they imply in the person selected to address them, knowledge founded on theory, substantiated and matured by practice; a mass of select and well-digested materials; perspicuity of method and command of words; imagination to place things in such views as they are not commonly seen in; presence of mind, and that resolution, the result of conscious vigour, which, in submitting to correct mistakes, cannot be easily discountenanced.—As conditions like these would discourage abilities far superior to mine, my hopes of approbation, moderate as they are, must in a great measure depend on that indulgence which may grant to my will what it would refuse to my powers.

'In the arrangement of my plan I shall prefer a progressive method, that may enable me, on future occasions, to treat more fully those parts which the pressure of others, seemingly or really more important, has obliged me to dismiss more abruptly or with less consideration than they have a right to claim. The first lecture exhibits a more critical than an historic sketch of the origin and progress of our art, confining research to that period, when fact and substantial information took place of conjecture; it naturally divides itself into two parts, the art of the ancients, and its restoration among the moderns: each is divided into three periods, that of preparation, that of full establishment, and that of refinement. The second lecture treats on the real subjects of painting and the plastic arts, in contradistinction to the subjects exclusively belonging to poetry—endeavouring to establish the reciprocal limits of both from the essential difference of their medium and materials. It establishes three principal classes of painting—the epic, the dramatic, and the historic; with their collateral branches of characteristic portrait and landscape, and the inferior subdivisions of imitation. In the third, design, correctness, copy, imitation, style, with its degrees of essential, characteristic, ideal, and deviation into manner, are considered, and the classes of the models left us in the remains of ancient sculpture, arranged. The fourth is devoted to invention, in its most general and specific sense, as it discovers, selects, combines the possible, the probable, and the known materials of nature, in a mode that strikes with novelty. The fifth follows with com-

position and expression—the dresser and the soul of invention. The sixth concludes with observations on colour, drapery, and execution.

'Such is the regular train of observations on an inexhaustible art, which—if life and circumstances sanction the wish—I mean to submit to your consideration in a future course: at present, the exuberance of the subject, the consideration due to each part, the various modes of treatment that presented themselves in the course of study, my necessary professional avocations, and some obstacles which I could as little foresee as avoid, grant scarcely more than fragments to lay before you. The first lecture, or the critical history of ancient and modern style, from its extreme richness and, as it appears to me, importance, is at present divided into two. The third will contain materials of the proper subjects of the art, and of invention, extracted from the second and the fourth, and connected by obvious analogy.

'But before I proceed to the history of style itself, it seems to be necessary that we should agree about the terms which denote its object, and perpetually recur in treating of it; that my vocabulary of technic expression should not clash with the dictionary of my audience: mine is nearly that of your late president. I shall confine myself at present to a few of the most important; the words nature, beauty, grace, taste, copy, imitation, genius, talent. Thus, by nature I understand the general and permanent principles of visible objects, not disfigured by accident, or distempered by disease, not modified by fashion or local habits. Nature is a collective idea, and, though its essence exist in each individual of the species, can never in its perfection inhabit a single object. On beauty I do not mean to perplex you or myself with abstract ideas, and the romantic reveries of Platonic philosophy, or to inquire whether it be the result of a simple or complex principle. As a local idea, Beauty is a despotic princess, and subject to the anarchies of Despotism, enthroned to-day, dethroned to-morrow. The beauty we acknowledge is that harmonious whole of the human frame, that unison of parts to one end, which enchants us—the result of the standard set by the great masters of our art, the ancients, and confirmed by the submissive verdict of modern imitation. By grace I mean that artless balance of motion and repose sprung from character, founded on propriety, which neither falls short of the demands nor overleaps the modesty of nature. Applied to execution, it means that dextrous power which hides the means by which it was attained, the difficulties it has conquered. When we say taste, we mean not crudely the knowledge of what is right in art: taste estimates the degrees of excellence, and by comparison proceeds from justness to refinement. Our language, or rather those who use it, generally confound, when speaking of the art, copy with imitation, though essentially different in operation and meaning. Precision of eye and obedience of hand are the requisites of the former, without the least pretence to choice, what to select, what to reject; whilst choice directed by judgement or taste constitutes the essence of imitation, and alone can raise the most dextrous copyist to the noble rank of an artist. The imitation of the ancients was essential, characteristic, ideal. The first cleared

nature, of accident, defect, excrescence; the second found the stamen which connects character with the central form; the third raised the whole and the parts to the highest degree of unison. Of genius I shall speak with reserve, for no word has been more indiscriminately confounded; by genius I mean that power which enlarges the circle of human knowledge, which discovers new materials of nature, or combines the known with novelty; whilst talent arranges, cultivates, polishes the discoveries of genius.' P. 1.

We shall not repeat the trivial and common-place accounts of the origin and progress of painting. In p. 26, &c. our author enters into a dispute with M. Falconet concerning the sacrifice of Iphigenia painted by Timanthes. Falconet thinks that the circumstance of her father's face being concealed is rather objectionable than laudable, and savours of sophistry—the chief object of art being to overcome a difficulty. This question we shall not stop to examine; but when we reflect that Falconet's statue of the Russian czar has been allowed, even by prejudiced spectators, to excel in novelty, grandeur, and effect, we could not repress indignation on observing our Swiss professor style it 'the ridiculous colossus of Peter the Great.' It is a vulgar but sensible remark, that a man who has a glass head should not throw stones; and as Mr. Fuseli uses such unwarrantable freedoms, we must beg leave to inform him that this statue will be greatly admired in the year 2000; at which time his ridiculous pictures, whether colossal or dwarfish, will be sold at mean prices by the brokers, or perhaps collected by some crack-brained connoisseur, who may arise to emulate the famous Sicilian prince in a new collection of monsters.—So much for the retort courteous, and so much in revenge of insulted genius.

After this fatal proof of want of taste, or, what is perhaps worse, the sacrifice of common candour to a trifling literary question, we shall not stop to examine the rest of our author's opinions, though many are extremely controvertible; and in the progress of the work we meet with singularities of style which evince that Mr. Fuseli is not master of the English language, or is resolved to violate its dignity as much as his paintings do that of nature. The character of Salvator Rosa may be given as another proof of candour and taste.

'The wildness of Salvator Rosa opposes a powerful contrast to the classic regularity of Poussin. Terrific and grand in his conceptions of inanimate nature, he was reduced to attempts of hiding, by boldness of hand, his inability of exhibiting her impassioned, or in the dignity of character: his line is vulgar: his magic visions, less founded on the principles of terror than on mythologic trash and caprice, are to the probable combinations of nature what the paroxysms of a fever are to the flights of vigorous fancy. Though so much extolled and so ambitiously imitated, his banditti are a medley made

up of starveling models, shreds and bits of armour from his lumber room, brushed into notice by a daring pencil. Salvator was a satyrist and a critic; but the rod which he had the insolence to lift against the nudities of Michael Angelo, and the anachronism of Raphaël, would have been better employed in chastising his own misconceptions.' P. 76.

Equally ridiculous is the note (p. 78) on portrait-painting, in which the writer shows a total unacquaintance with its very nature and principles. But our author is a most determined critic; and few names have escaped his censures, either direct or oblique. If we remember rightly, sir Joshua Reynolds was accustomed to blame by his silence alone; and surely nothing can be more indecent than to convert the chair of a professor into the tub of a satirist. But Mr. Fuseli's satirical turn seems connected with the bias of his taste; and never is malignity accompanied with true genius. This, however, is only another violent posture; and the whole is of a piece. It would form a good subject for a Hogarth, to delineate Mr. Fuseli in the professor's chair.

ART. X. — *Sermons on various Subjects. By Edward Pye Waters, A. B. &c.* 8*vo.* 7*s. Boards.* Whites.

IN the first discourse we meet with the following, among other questions of similar import. 'Has not a whole powerful and civilised nation, assembled in council, impiously decreed that there is no God?'—The nation to whom the preacher alludes most assuredly never did; and the late rebellion in Ireland is, with an equal ignorance of facts, termed 'a dire union of atheism and bigotry.' But allowing the representations of the preacher to be true, what good end could it possibly answer to divert the attention of an audience, on a Sunday, from truths of the highest importance, inculcated by Scripture authority, to the affairs of France and Ireland—subjects which every good man would wish to keep removed from his sight on the day devoted to religion, to the ennobling intercourse between himself and his Maker?—Equally injudicious are the ensuing queries. 'Where are we to look for pure and undefiled religion? Is it within the pale of the established church?—Most assuredly there, if any where,' is the answer promptly given by the preacher to himself, forgetting the maxim of Scripture, 'Let another man praise thee, and not thy own lips.' The proper reply would have been, that true religion is to be found only in the word of God; and that men may profess to be members of any church, may boast of being within the pale of

the church of England, of Rome, or of Scotland—all established churches,—and yet be strangers to the church of Christ. But we must allow something to an orator;—and his panegyric on the church is drawn up under a happy figure.

'There is in religion, as in the circumstances of society, a golden mean; and as the happiest climate of the world lies between the extremes of heat and cold, so also in religion is there a temperate zone, equally distant from the fervor of enthusiasm and the coldness of infidelity, most kindly to the growth and produce of religious knowledge, and favorable to the encouragement of every good and pious affection. In this temperature is situated the church of England, thus established in the remotest point from every extreme: therein have the truths of religion been the most securely and profitably studied, and therein have flourished the fairest examples of ardent faith and unsullied righteousness.' P. 16.

In another sermon we lose the preacher entirely, and seem to see the orator on the treasury-bench in St. Stephen's chapel.

'It is from the influence of the eternal principles of justice that the people of Great-Britain have assumed the commanding and majestic character of the restorers of the long-lost tranquillity and honour of Europe. It is on these principles that they demand, not so much indemnity for the past, as security for the future; and seek, through such prodigious and continued efforts, not aggrandisement for themselves, nor their allies, but the real happiness and sober prosperity of those whom she has been compelled to call and treat as enemies. It is in support of the same cause, in support of our dearest rights, that we have successfully exerted ourselves in resisting our internal enemies, who have laboured with unwearied perseverance and undiminished hardihood to introduce the same dreadful scenes of anarchy into this country which have laid France in blood and ruin, and that we have arrested the progress of rebellion, averted the overthrow of our long-tried establishments, civil and religious, and escaped the plunder and desolation which attend all sweeping innovations. It is by the preventing power of these principles that our reason has not been sophisticated, nor our hearts corrupted by a foolish, proud, and savage philosophy—a philosophy which we have discovered to be as ignorant as it is presumptuous, when it would teach us that government can have any other foundations than religion and morality: as absurd as it is ungenerous, when it would induce us to forget our obligations to our ancestors, and disregard our duties to posterity: as delusive as it is barbarous, when it would persuade us to display our courage, by braving our consciences; our humanity, by wading through blood for speculative and contingent advantage; and our justice, by trampling on all established rights. And, above all, it is by the intervention of these principles that we have not yet, by a national act, denied the existence and defied the power of our God, refused the gracious offers of salvation brought unto us by our Redeemer, and haughtily rejected

the benign influence of the Holy Spirit;—in a word, that we have "walked humbly with our God." P. 179.

'So entirely, indeed, have the weakness, the baseness, and the atrocity of the modern revolutionary doctrines been unveiled, that if any man remain still inclined to adopt them, we must either pity his blindness, or shudder at his wickedness. We must not, however, relax in our opposition to the emissaries of rebellion and anarchy; since, as long as there are weak and unprincipled men in the world, so long it will be necessary to associate in defence of good order and religion.' P. 181.

We cannot too much reprobate this mode of preaching. Let the pulpit be dedicated to higher strains of instruction; let no worldly thoughts interfere to give the hearer an opinion of his own superior righteousness: the church is not the place for comparisons between one audience and another; the great and everlasting Gospel is not to be debased by temporal occurrences or speculations on human affairs.

ART. XI. — *General View of the Agriculture in the County of Perth: with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. By James Robertson, D.D. Minister at Callander in the County of Perth. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement.* 8*vo.* Morison, Perth.

AGRICULTURE, though more lately practised in any great extent, has been carried on with more scientific precision, and more philosophical discrimination, in North than in South Britain. The reason perhaps may be, that the middling class of yeomen or renters is little known. Those who did not possess estates in their own right were in general servants; and agriculture, thus in the hands of the higher and better educated ranks, has been more carefully and judiciously promoted. It is perhaps for a similar reason that the best gardeners in England are from the north, and that thence also we have received the results of experiments conducted with more exactitude, and planned with greater ability, than in our own part of the country. Perthshire is a county of considerable magnitude, and it occupies nearly the centre of the kingdom; bordering on the Highlands westward, and on the maritime districts in its eastern frontier.

'The land to which the following survey refers seems to divide that part of Scotland on the south, which is generally adapted to the raising of grain, from that on the north; which, with few exceptions, is more fitted for pasture.

'It is also singular that the county under review divides those

parts of the kingdom on the north, where firs abounded in former times, which are still found in the mosses, from those in the south, which carried oaks and a variety of other wood, but no firs, as far as I have ever heard. Nature herself, which never errs, appears to have clad our bleak mountains with a mantle, which is for ever green; while she had planted trees, which shed their leaves, where ornament and shelter were less necessary, lest perhaps the verdure of the ground would be too much intercepted from the eye of man.

'In this county is the boundary between those parts of Britain where coal has been discovered, and those where coal has not hitherto been found—that useful fossil, which is so necessary for the comfort of the southern districts, being less requisite in the north, where extensive forests of the pine, the best of all fuel, formerly grew, and still grow spontaneously.

'Here is also the division betwixt the granite and the free-stone; there being no free-stone north of us, and the granite less frequent than the free-stone on the south. Our hewing-stone quarries gradually harden as you approach the Grampians.

'Slates, that beautiful covering for houses, are found in few parts of Britain south of this county.

'Another distinguishing feature of this county is, that it contains more oak-woods than are to be found in all the other counties of North-Britain.' P. xix.

We greatly regret the want of a map of this county, in which the different soils might be laid down as in many of the agricultural reports of England. Without this assistance it is almost impossible to form or to convey any adequate idea of the soil. It is in general clay, or a rich loam, in consequence of the overflowing of brooks; and the soil consists of carses (the clay) and haughs, the regions occasionally overflowed. We shall add the author's bold outline from the topographical description in the Appendix.

'In a surface so extensive, it may naturally be supposed that the country exhibits an appearance very much diversified. The grandest object which attracts the notice of a stranger, traveling northward from Edinburgh or Glasgow, is the boldness of the Grampian mountains, piled upon one another in huge masses, which extend not only the whole length of this county, but reach across the island, from Aberdeen on the German Ocean to Cowal on the Atlantic. The southern front of these mountains, which runs from south-west to north-east, has in many places a gradual and pleasing slope into a champaign country of great extent and fertility; and notwithstanding the forbidding aspect, at first sight, of the mountains themselves, with their mantle of heath and rugged rocks, they are intersected in a thousand directions by winding valleys, which are watered by rivers and brooks of the most limpid water, clad with the richest pastures, sheltered by thriving woods that fringe the lakes and run along the streams, and are accessible in most places by roads unquestionably the best in Britain. These valleys, where there is such a rich variety of natural beauty, form a contrast to the ruggedness of the surround-

ing mountains, and present to the eye such romantic scenery as must be admired by every traveler of taste. The rivers in the deep defiles struggle to find a passage where the opposite hills approach so near, the indented rocks and impending woods embrace so closely, that the waters rush with incredible force, and a deafening roar, in proportion to the altitude of the fall. Then plains of various extent burst suddenly on the eye, which are filled with villages and well-cultivated farms. Chains of lakes, finely wooded down to the water-edge, are connected with mæandering streams, stored with a variety of fish. The hills are covered with snowy flocks, and numerous herds are browsing on the pastures below.—The noblemen and gentlemen's houses are generally set down on the side of a lake, or on gentle declivities facing the meridian sun, with a lawn in front intersected by the winding links of a river, and plantations of stately oaks, beeches, and other forest trees on the right and on the left, which together with the hills behind, variegated with planting, increase their beauty and their warmth.—The author has been advised by the Board to place this Topographical Description, not in the front of the Report, but in the Appendix, in which he has endeavoured to give some account of the general appearance of the surface of Perthshire, its most remarkable rivers, lakes, and mountains, the situation, prospects, and embellishments, of some of the noblemen and gentlemen's seats, with such remarks upon each as have naturally occurred.

'Along the south side of the Grampians, and on the north side of another range of green hills, there lies a large valley, or strath, which runs in the same direction with these mountains, and terminates on the north-east at Stonehaven, and on the south-west at Dunbarton, reaching from sea to sea. This strath is of unequal breadth, from ten to fifteen miles over, in different places, and upwards of one hundred miles long. It is intersected by many large and beautiful rivers, every one of which is peculiar to this county, excepting two on the east, and one at the western extremity, beyond the limits of Perthshire.' P. 453.

The particular description is equally animated and precise. It reflects the highest credit on the taste, abilities, and judgement of Dr. Robertson. The account of the moss of Kincardine, and the methods adopted for reclaiming it, are well described; and many useful hints may be collected from Mr. Smyth's method of cultivating waste land. Some other valuable papers are added in the appendix, among which we may particularly notice Mr. Haldane's attempts to introduce the fine-wooled sheep, and the description of various remains of antiquity in this county.

The arrangement of the General View before us is the same with the reports of other counties; but more minute, miscellaneous, and instructive. What however constitutes the chief merit of the work to the reader, renders it impossible for us to convey an adequate idea of it. We shall, nevertheless, mention the different heads, with a few remarks, as they occur.

Of the state of property we can give no discriminate account;

but shall select the pleasing picture of Scottish manners from the introduction.

'The noblemen have large estates; which enable them to support their dignity with splendor, and to perpetuate the hospitality of their ancestors. Many of the gentlemen have independent fortunes, gratifying a taste for elegance suited to their improved ideas and their rank in life. There are few or no counties in Scotland where the commoners are more distinguished by their education, their manners, their enlarged views, the love of their country, and the extent of their property. Those among them, who are not engaged in the arduous departments of government, of law, or military affairs, live for the most part upon their estates, have a pleasure in embellishing their residence, and ornamenting the country around them. Not a few of them superintend the improvements of their own tenants; and, by condescending to reason with the country people, remove their prejudices against new modes of culture, teach them to discern their true interest, acquire their confidence and esteem, and are regarded as the fathers and friends of every person within their domains. While the supercilious landlord, who, with an air of disdain, keeps his tenants at a distance, or does not know them at all, scarcely receives the cold salute and ceremonious bow which is due to rank; he who bends a little, and exchanges a few kind expressions, receives the respectful salutation of esteem, accompanied with the affectionate language of gratitude. The most beloved and the most successful generals were those who knew their soldiers personally. No man is less dignified for being loved; and it lessens no man's consequence in the world to have the confidence of those around him. Hence the generality of proprietors, who are resident on their estates, lead their tenants by the hand in the road of improvement and of wealth; and have found the true secret of promoting their own interest while they promote the interest of their people.

'Under the feudal system the management of estates would be but little attended to: a property acquired by force of arms must be kept possession of by the sword. It was therefore more necessary to train the tenantry to war than to rural improvements.

'On the large estates there was an officer next in authority to the proprietor himself, who, under the name of chamberlain, was at once minister, general, and manager of the estate. The farms were divided and subdivided to make room for a greater number of soldiers, and were frittered down into these small holdings in which they are now found; in which circumstances no solid improvement could ever be expected to take place.' P. 37.

The division of property, where there are no dykes, is simple and curious. It is by 'wind and water;' that is, the windward or leeward side of a hill, more accurately distinguished by the course which the rain takes when falling. The buildings and cottages are increasing in number and convenience: they do not yet rise to elegance. The farms are large, the rents augmenting, and the whole county greatly improving. Dr. Robert-

son thinks large farms most conducive to the profits and comforts of the agriculturist. We have lately advanced the same opinion. Neither poor's-rates nor tithes are known in Scotland. The means by which the ministers are supported, and the poor fed, are sufficiently known. Leases are not common; and the want of an extensive interest, together with a dependence on the caprice of the landlord, retards improvements. The profits of farming however, as here stated, seem not to be inconsiderable; and the implements of husbandry improve with the profits and the increasing scale of agricultural attempts. Inclosing and planting appear to have been encouraged at a very early period, and each has lately been much extended. We strongly suspect that what are called ridges in the following passage are natural appearances: yet the author's reflexions are judicious, and the passage itself is curious.

'We meet with evident vestiges of ridges in the higher regions of the mountains, beyond all these fences, where the land has never been inclosed. These inhospitable spots never could have been turned up in the ordinary circumstances of the country. What dire necessity could have compelled men to plough such land? And how could grain come to maturity in such a climate? Either the first inhabitants of the country found the valleys so much infested with wild beasts, that they thought it safest to fix their residence on the mountains; and the country was so much wooded, that it was warmer than at present: or, during the successful campaigns of Agricola in this country, it is very likely that the Caledonians were compelled to retreat from the more fertile to the more barren parts of Scotland. The inhabitants flocked to their fastnesses, where their enemies durst not follow them. The population was in this event crowded beyond what the usual produce of the country in these places could support. The pressure of their situation urged them to have recourse to the soil of the mountains, by a temporary tillage, to prevent famine. What noble heroism, to run the risk of wanting subsistence, rather than to live in plenty, under the Romans, with the loss of liberty!

'These remarks are applicable to the general state of the Highlands at a very early period: the features of all the mountainous parts of North-Britain are in that respect much the same; and excepting in the vicinity of the mansions of great proprietors, things remained for several centuries in this situation. Before the union, the trade of every man was war; and there was little leisure and no inclination to inclose or cultivate the ground. Within the period of half a century inclosing has made rapid progress in this country, especially during the last thirty years, and the ardor with which this and every other species of cultivation is carried on in our time promises to be lasting and highly beneficial to all ranks of men.' P. 109.

Folding sheep on the mountains destroys very sensibly the heath; but it has less effect on the valleys, as the plant is probably there stronger and more hardy. Planting most certainly

shelters the crop and the habitations. Our author has witnessed evident improvements in Perthshire from this source.—The chapter on arable lands is a very interesting one, and contains a great variety of useful information with respect to crops of almost every different kind. To give even the outline of the whole would be too extensive, and not particularly valuable: the entire subject must be read together. To prevent the fly in turnips, it is recommended to sow some new with the old seed. The former springs most rapidly; and, when devoured, the fly seeks some other crop, and the latter seed springs unmolested. The cheapness of turnip-seed renders this no very expensive method. The gradual spread of information towards the Highlands affords a pleasing prospect; and the Highland farming is not uninteresting. Our author's observations on the management of grass land, and the different grasses, afforded us much satisfaction. Indeed, there is no subject apparently so barren that he does not enliven and enrich by new or important remarks. The orchards and gardens, the woods and plantations, are in a thriving state, and promise to arrive gradually at some perfection, though in a high latitude, and in a less genial situation. All the variety of forest trees flourish in this county, but particularly larches. The plantations of oaks are also numerous.—In the chapter of wastes and moors we find some good directions for reclaiming mosses, and some strong arguments in favour of plantations. Scotland was certainly at one period covered with woods.

Among the improvements in Perthshire, draining, embanking, trenching, manuring, and watering, hold distinguished places. Our intelligent author thinks with us respecting paring and burning. The manures chiefly employed are dung, marl, and lime; and Dr. Robertson seems to be of opinion, that pulverised lime-stone would succeed as well as calcined, but not so quickly, notwithstanding its effects are seemingly more lasting. The following facts, though not new, are placed in so interesting a light that we have been tempted to select them, with the author's truly judicious and philosophical conclusion.

'There is nothing more common, and perhaps few things more difficult to be accounted for, than when lime is spread on short heath, or other barren ground which has a dry bottom, to see white clover and daisies rising spontaneously and plentifully, the second or third spring thereafter, where not a vestige of either, nor even a blade of grass, was to be seen before.

'The seeds of some plants have wings, and when fully ripe they spread their sails to the wind; the seeds of others have long beards, which make them buoyant, and raise them aloft in the air, in quest of a new settlement: but it is vain to suppose that the heavy globular seeds of clover and daisies, without beard or wings, are wafted about by the winds: it is also absurd to say, that they are brought

there in the lime, after it has been burnt; and it is equally so, to allege that they are deposited from the stomachs of birds, without having been digested, as stone-seeds sometimes are, or that birds would pitch upon the very spot, where lime or other enriching manure had been spread, to deposit there the white clover and daisy seeds in such quantities, and in no other place near it, nor at any former time.

'Suppose a field to be well drained, and, in consequence of that operation, to carry the richest and finest grasses. If any one of the drains shall stop, rushes, sprits, and other coarse grass peculiar to spouty land, will grow apace. Why does this coarse grass grow only at the drain that has ceased to flow, where the land is overcharged with water? Why does not the same grass appear in the tract of the other drains, where the water is carried off? Or if the seeds of these coarse grasses are sown by birds, why are they not sown in dry land, which birds frequent, rather than in a bog, where few of them alight? Unless one can give a satisfactory answer to these difficulties, the sowing of clover and daisies, of sprits and rushes, and of every other species of grass, by birds, must be given up.

'Lastly, it is altogether unphilosophical, and contrary to common sense, to have recourse to the doctrine of equivocal generation, by imagining that any thing can produce itself, or that the seed of grasses can be produced without a cause. This doctrine is universally exploded. No man will hold it, who does not wish to be thought to have bid adieu to his understanding.—Many difficulties occur relative to the generation of animals as well as plants; but to those my subject does not lead me. We are surrounded with mysteries on every hand; and many things both in the material and intellectual world appear inexplicable to us, owing to the shallowness of our understanding. The ways and the works of God are dark and intricate, and we often attempt to investigate them in vain. Our most profound researches are frequently nothing better than guessing at the causes of the phænomena that appear in the course of providence. There is no harm in these conjectures, if we hold them with humility.—Perhaps the seeds of all plants were created at the same time with the earth itself, and deposited in the ground, to remain there, until they are called forth by that degree of fecundity in the soil, and warmth in the sun, together with the moisture and exposure, and other circumstances which correspond to their nature.' P. 288.

The breed of cattle in Perthshire is bad; but superior kinds are daily introduced. The breed of goats is discouraged, as these animals destroy the young trees; and sheep are found to be more profitable. The flocks of sheep are now very numerous, and of the best stocks. They are in general the black-faced kind from the south. The numbers do not seem to have hitherto diminished that of black cattle; for many reasons assigned by our author: but he seems to think that the period is not very distant when this effect will appear; for the sheep system is gradually gaining ground. Yet there are many arguments which show that the increasing fertility of Scotland, and the

improving climate, may render the country capable of supporting both the numerous flocks of sheep and the usual herds of cattle. The remarks on the diseases of sheep seem to be valuable, and the result of real observation. The other kinds of live stock afford no very particular subject of remark. Pigeons our author thinks so voracious as to be a national injury; and computes, from a rough calculation, that the pigeons in Great Britain devour as much grain as would support 120,000 of the human species. Bees, on the contrary, devour nothing that can be employed for the use of man; and their production is wholly gain.

Under the chapter of 'rural œconomy' our author gives a pleasing picture of the ancient mode of life of the shepherds of this county, but, we fear, has decorated it with colours too delusive. The price of labour is doubled within about twenty years: but this he considers as no peculiar inconvenience, since every thing rises in proportion, and finds its level. Provisions are growing dearer, but are still what would in England be called very cheap. The arguments adduced to support the predilection for the arable system in this county merit attention; and those which relate to distillation, especially the fraudulent practice, are certainly very judicious.

What relates to roads and canals, fairs and markets, is chiefly of local importance; but we observe with satisfaction the progressive improvements in the two former branches of rural œconomy. The exports of this county are chiefly agricultural. There seems to be no manufactured wool, except in shawls. Flax and cotton afford some varieties of manufacture. The whole trade is rapidly augmenting. The quantity of salmons taken and exported from Loch Tay appears on the contrary to be decreasing—a circumstance more to be regretted, since the salmon of this loch is of a very superior flavour.

The population is certainly on the whole increased, though, by inclosing and large farms, it is allowed to have diminished in some districts. This is, however, fully compensated by the enlargement of towns and villages. The obstacles to improvement are chiefly of local importance; and even to explain the meaning of some of these would not be an easy task. The miscellaneous observations, including the means of amelioration, are highly valuable, but chiefly important to the inhabitants*. On the whole, we have read this work with great pleasure. The information is in general interesting: the reflexions interspersed

* We may just observe, that in the Appendix we find 'Hiers Carns' interpreted 'Heros Cairns.' If this be correct, may it not assist in deciphering a disputed and almost unintelligible passage in the Merry Wives of Windsor, where mine host says —'Will you go on Heres?'—Will you go on Heros?—an expression very suitable to the bombastic style of *this* Hero of the garter. Rev.

show the author to possess taste, learning, and judgement. We have seen no agricultural report that, in all these respects, exceeds, or perhaps equals, the present volume.

ART. XII.—*Poems by William Boscawen, Esq.* 12*mo.* Stockdale, 1801.

THESE poems consist of elegies, odes, heroic epistles, and occasional copies of verses. Though we do not discover in them many of the more daring flights of genius, they have not offended us by instances either of affectation or carelessness. Mr. Boscawen's versification is melodious and easy; and, what is more to his credit, the whole breathes benevolence of heart and purity of moral principle. His elegies appear to us—but perhaps it is the most difficult species of minor poetry—to be his least successful efforts. His odes possess more merit. They often exhibit in their diction much of the majesty and characteristic grace of this species of composition. We shall select, in proof of our assertion, the second Ode, written for the Anniversary Meeting of the Subscribers to the Literary Fund, April 21st, 1795.

'Ye sacred Bards of elder time,
Whose genius breath'd celestial fire!
Whose heartfelt rapture soar'd in songs sublime!
Whose magic fingers swept the sounding lyre!
Who, proud th' heroic chief to crown,
Wove the bright chaplet of renown,
Or told in soft and melting strains
The fond despairing lover's pains;
Or, with your animating breath,
Kindled the patriot's generous zeal,
And bade him, for his country's weal,
Brave the stern tyrant's power, and smile in death!

'Blest spirits! from your starry spheres,
Where, clad in robes of sapphire hue,
Ye sit enthron'd, oh deign to view
This flow of harmony divine,
This social homage to the nine,
Which sweet Benevolence endears!
And, while the voice of Pity floats
In soft, melodious, thrilling notes,
Wake Inspiration's loftier strain!
Wake the bright hopes of happier days,
When Poetry again shall raise
Her genuine song, and heaven-born genius reign!

'Oh! mark the glories of that age
Which lives in Homer's matchless page!
When kings, when heroes could admire
The glowing verse, th' enraptur'd lyre.
High on a throne of silver placed,
Their festive halls the poet graced;
And when he tower'd on Fancy's wing,
And when his touch awak'd the string,
What sympathetic hearts around
Beat to th' inspiring martial sound!
Again he bade the battle bleed,
And pour'd swift vengeance on the foe;
While mem'ry of each glorious deed
Kindled ecstatic valour's glow.
Each warrior chief, with fond regard
Cherish'd the soul-inspiring bard;
Each felt, with transport felt, his name
Snatch'd from oblivion's power, and stamp'd with deathless fame.

'Speak, gentle Muse, thy conscious pride!
Record the trophies of thy sway,
When, with impetuous foaming tide,
The mighty Theban's deep-ton'd lay
Rush'd, like a torrent, from the mountain's side.
Th' Olympic champion's far-fam'd deeds,
The hardy wrestler, and victorious steeds,
His verse adorn'd with bright renown,
Beyond the statue, or the laurel crown:
At solemn feasts he shar'd
The sacred portion for the Gods prepar'd;
In after ages, lov'd, ador'd,
His awful name
Alone could stay the hostile flame,
Quell the fierce victor's rage, avert his vengeful sword.

'What triumphs, queen of song, were thine,
When Rome, in boundless rule enthron'd,
Proud Rome, thy gentle empire own'd,
Own'd the mild lustre of thy charms,
Resign'd for peaceful arts her arms,
And lov'd thy sons, ador'd thy shrine!
Th' imperial master of mankind,
To soft humanity refin'd,
Heard the majestic Mantuan lay,
Delighted heard th' Ausonian lyre
Mild counsels breathe, just thoughts inspire,
And felt the Muse's power that harmoniz'd his sway.

'Say, Britain, when, in days of yore,
Thy sons 'gainst Rome's invading band
Stood dauntless on thy sea-girt shore,
Stern guardians of their native land,

And on the deep-wedg'd ranks of war
Impetuous whirl'd the scythed car,
What power their generous valour fir'd?
The bard, the sacred bard, inspir'd!
From oak-crown'd glades,
From mystic shades,
Where late he chaunted meek Religion's strain,
Avenger of his country's wrongs,
With harp attun'd to martial songs,
He rush'd indignant to th'embattled plain.
Nor less his voice, 'midst faction's rage,
Could Discord, baleful fiend! assuage,
The warrior's madd'ning steel arrest,
And charm to peace his savage breast.
Taught by his lore in social bands to join,
All lov'd the gentle bard, all bless'd the song divine.

'But where, ah where! in later days,
The bright reward, the generous praise,
That once adorn'd the tuneful train?
The rev'rence genius could command,
When, cherish'd by a grateful land,
It pour'd a free and virtuous strain?
Far from the mansions of the great,
Where pride maintains its sullen state,
Where, sunk in ease, unfeeling lux'ry lies,
Repell'd, the Muse's offspring flies.
What fiends attend his steps forlorn!
Gaunt Poverty, with feeble cries,
And wan Disease, and taunting Scorn!
These, these, arrest each bolder flight;
Or, should his fancy nobly dare,
Base Av'rice stints the hard-earn'd mite,
Drives him once more to want, and bids him clasp Despair.

'Behold, in Mis'ry's drear abode,
A care-worn wretch expire!
'Tis he! the Bard whose fancy glow'd
With soft yet vivid fire;
Who in the tend'rest notes of woe
Bade Belvidera's sorrows flow;
Whose powerful Muse, beyond controul,
Could wring, could agonise the soul!—
And mark that youth with aspect wild!
Chill Penury's devoted child;
Who, feigning a rude antique strain,
Woo'd Fortune's smile, but woo'd in vain:
Absorb'd in deep despair he lies;
He pines, he sinks, he dies!
Ill-fated youth! with fost'ring ray
Had kind Protection blest thy lay,

And taught the path to well-earn'd fame,
Britain perchance had gloried in thy name,
Had hail'd thee prosp'rous and renown'd,
By every Muse inspir'd, with every virtue crown'd.

'Ah! then, celestial Muse descend!
The glories of thy reign renew:
Bright Honour's source, fair Virtue's friend,
Smile on the liberal chosen few!
Congenial hearts alike inspire
Thy genuine sons to cherish and admire:
Exalt thy vot'ry's purer mind
Above the vulgar joys that charm mankind;
Awake the sympathetic glow!
Bid the rich stream of bounty flow!
Again bid drooping genius rise,
Assert its long lost rights, and claim its native skies!' P. 30.

The foregoing poem has occupied so considerable a portion of our journal, that we cannot allow any space for farther extracts. In his imitations of Horace Mr. B. is often happy; and 'The Progress of Satire' contains much just discrimination, conveyed in flowing and pointed numbers. His character of a work which lately made a wonderful noise in the literary and political world—which was much talked of, but little read—is at once candid and severe. We had some intention of quoting the passage to which we allude; but the consideration of the old maxim, *De mortuis*, &c. has influenced our forbearance.

ART. XIII.—*Sermons, on various Subjects; by John Bidlake, B.A. Vol. II*.* 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Murray *and* Highley.

THERE is a fund of good sense in these sermons, mixed with a considerable degree of piety and enlarged views of religion. Many of the subjects are local; but excellent lessons of instruction are derived from them. The melancholy events which have of late distressed the human race, and the repugnance to religion of every kind in a neighbouring nation, are deeply felt by the writer. But, with due confidence in the Creator of the World, who can draw good out of evil, he considers the unhappy instruments of this evil as destined to pave the way for a train of events which they neither have desired nor could possibly foresee. In our own kingdom, from the growing attachment to popery, so lamentably perceived in many persons whose compassion for the distressed has led them to compassion for their follies and vicious superstitions, the following remarks cannot be too much attended to by those who still retain a regard to the principles of the Protestant religion.

* See our 14th vol. New Arr. p. 281.

'Much has been said of the violence which has been offered to religion in the neighbouring state. From scenes of bloodshed and devastation the feeling mind naturally turns with horror and disgust. But it must be remembered, that the religion which has been overthrown in the country of the enemy, was a monster of superstition, and the parent of cruel and unrelenting persecution. While we have to lament the tyranny which effected its destruction, as Protestants we must mourn more for the blood that has been shed, than for the system which its fall has shaken. Strange as it may seem, there is no species of cruelty so unfeeling, none so deliberately and systematically barbarous, as religious enthusiasm. For when the mind is inflamed by this dreadful phrensy, all the avenues of compassion are closed, and every sense of feeling deadened. The ties of nature are disregarded, if not totally dissolved; and the cries of distress, which are by nature so tuned to the correspondent feelings of humanity, as to make even the hardened nerve vibrate, has no tone that can awaken sympathy in the fanatical assassin. When once the deluded wretch fondly imagines that he is employed as the immediate agent of God, his mistaken zeal totally changes his former habits. In fury he exceeds the brute; but with this unhappy difference, that his thirst of blood is never satisfied. The whole history of the church of Rome puts this beyond a doubt; and we must not forget that this sanguinary bigotry has formerly distracted our own country with persecution, and was unfavourable to the interests of the present reigning family. Many periods of our history are marked by its cruel spirit; and we shudder as we read those pages which recount the sufferings of numerous and innocent martyrs. Europe, nay every quarter of the globe, has felt this most dreadful scourge. Again, on a late melancholy event, it has appeared in all the horrors of deliberate and systematic massacre. If tired of such a religion, intolerant and persecuting in its principles; if tired of the vain and meretricious worship, which mocked the common sense of mankind, our volatile neighbours have run into the wild excesses of impiety, and have entertained the foolish expectation of conducting the affairs of life and governing mankind without religion; if metaphysical philosophy has induced them to pursue vain deceits, and to make the dangerous experiment of placing human wisdom in the room of divine; let us hope that the wise Providence, who can bid the mental storm be calm, and direct the evil counsels of men to the production of good, will again, as he did on Sinai, send forth his word from amidst clouds and tempests. Yes, from the ashes of superstition, a rational and a benevolent religion may arise. Such must at length prevail: it is indispensable to our present as well as future happiness. In the mean time *let us hold fast the profession of our faith without wavering.* For every nation will discover, and every individual must have felt, in his own experience, that only piety can produce solid and permanent consolation. While the soul wanders from deceit to deceit, like the bird first enlarged from the ark, in every excursion it will seek in vain for a resting place; and after it has tasted of all that the world has to give, and made every trial for itself, will find that it must return to seek its happiness in God.' p. 48.

From this extract our readers will form their opinion of the author's style, which is generally uniform, calm, and perspicuous. His discourses are chiefly of a moral tendency; and, in many instances, very apt allusions are made to the objects of nature; and lessons of instruction are derived from history, profane as well as sacred. It is evident that examples of the former kind cannot be understood by a mixed audience; and as the Scriptures will always afford them in sufficient abundance, the attempt to derive aid from profane history is, to say the least of it, superfluous.

ART. XIV.—*New Observations concerning the Inflections of Light, accompanying those of Newton, but differing from his, and appearing to lead to a Change of his Theory of Light and Colours.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

IT is not from this subject's having failed to claim much of our attention, nor from the author's choosing to remain unknown, that these observations have been long unnoticed. In fact, we wished to bring his work to an undivided attention, an unruffled mind; and, though we cannot yet boast of these attainments, we can delay no longer the payment of the tribute of investigation and applause which our author's talents so well deserve.

In examining and repeating Newton's experiments with other views, we were surprised at some apparent errors and misrepresentations, as we thought them, of appearances, and were compelled to recollect, in justice to the memory of that truly excellent philosopher, his own apology for their imperfections. He considered his experiments as first attempts only: posterity, dazzled by his reputation, has unfortunately looked at the Optics as a perfect work, and, with a very few exceptions, resigned in despair all hopes of improving the science. The mechanical philosophy of the age of Newton was the source of some of his errors in reasoning, and of his misconception of some of the phænomena. While he represented rays of light by lines, it was difficult to divest himself of the geometrical idea of a line; nor, when an impulse was given, was it easy to suppose the direction changed, without some impediment or cause of change. We now begin to perceive all the difficulties and inconveniences of extending the mechanical philosophy beyond its proper sphere, and to distrust the universality of axioms which were once supposed indisputable. In fact, the similarity of the term led philosophers to confound the *philosophical* axiom with the mathematical. The latter is a proposition that *cannot* be otherwise; the former, one which has not hitherto been proved untrue. The optical axioms are philosophical only.

The first part of this author's inquiries relates to the size of the shadows of objects when the light of the sun passes through a small hole, and is afterwards intercepted by an opaque body. Our author, in repeating the experiment, found the light much more divergent than if it had passed from the hole in strait lines, and more dilated than it ought to be by the penumbral light of the solar disc. This he seems to ascribe to the attraction of the edges of the aperture: but the penumbral light of the sun itself requires some explanation, and must be attributed to the mutual repulsion of the particles of light, when not hindered by the lateral pressure of light around. We must however follow our author, and shall describe the other changes in the condition of the ray in his own words, with his explanation.

'The light of this beam was very equally diffused, and almost uniformly dense in all its internal central parts, being also tolerably well defined on its external parts or edges, in a manner very different from what it ought to have been by the penumbral light alone. But the appearances were somewhat different, with holes of different dimensions.

'With a hole one-tenth of an inch wide, or wider, the centre of the beam was composed of the dense direct light of the sun, unchanged in its passage; but farther therefrom, towards the borders of the beam, this light began to decrease in density, and gradually decayed more and more in the approaches nearer and nearer to the borders, becoming at last considerably diluted and evanescent, and rendering the edge of the beam ill-defined and indistinct.

'With a smaller hole than the last, the central dense light entirely disappeared; and, with a hole yet smaller than this, of the dimensions of the first before-mentioned hole, the external edges of the beam became more condensed and better defined, and the whole beam of light became, as before described, of more uniform density in all its parts. With a hole smaller than any of the foregoing, about the hundredth part of an inch wide, various colours began to appear in the beam, the central parts of which became now, in their turn, more diluted than the rest, the external parts denser than these, and bordered with tinges of yellow and red light on the very edge or margin of the beam.

'All these appearances are to be ascribed to the same attractions of the edges of the holes, and of the different parts of the edges. These, when the hole is large, affect only the parts of the light passing nearest to them; when the hole is reduced, they attract and dilate the whole of the passing light; when the hole is yet more considerably diminished, as in the first part of this observation, they act not only each part upon the light passing nearest to each, but each part also upon the light passing nearest to each opposite part of the edge, condensing by diminishing the attraction and diffusion of the light on the edges of the beam, and rendering the whole more equably and uniformly divergent; and these at last, when the hole is in its most reduced state of about a hundredth part of an inch wide, by their various actions produce colours in the passing light in the manner and upon the principles hereafter to be explained.

'In the beam of solar light passed through the small hole, one-fiftieth part of an inch wide, I observed the shadows of very slender bodies, pins, needles, straws, hairs, to be considerably broader, as they ought to be in this divergent light, than the bodies themselves; but as each of these bodies exercises upon the light passing by it the same attractions by which the light is bent in passing through the hole, I concluded that a part of the light would be in every case bent, in passing by, towards the body into the shadow, and illuminate it and diminish its breadth. In this conclusion I was confirmed by the variations of dimensions of the shadows measured by Newton, and by the differences of proportion he observed to prevail in their breadths with respect to the distances of observation from the hole.' P. 8.

These appearances are, we know, related with accuracy; but we have always found it very difficult to explain them. In the smallest hole of one-hundredth part of an inch, the light seems to have been wholly attracted by the edges, so as to leave a darker part in the centre—and we shall find some collateral facts to support this idea; and it is this very attenuated light that becomes coloured when seen against the darker air. In general, it must be observed that the opaque body attracts the light, and turns it in a direction towards itself: thus the light becomes more divergent when passing through the hole, and shadows become smaller than from the diverging rays they otherwise would be.

Our author's account of the fringes of colours differs greatly from that of sir Isaac Newton. We shall select the comparative view.

'THE NEWTONIAN FRINGES and COLOURS.	'THE OBSERVED FRINGES and COLOURS.
Shadow	Black
Violet	Greyish black
Indigo	Greyish blue
Pale blue	White
Green	Yellow
Yellow	Red
Red	Dark interval
Blue	Diluted violet
Yellow	Blue
Red	Diluted green
Pale blue	Yellow
Pale yellow	Red
Red.	Green
	Diluted yellow
	Red
	Diluted green
	Red
	White
	Diluted red
	White light.' P. 26.

On this subject we shall only remark, with our author, that the order is variable, and that the fringes are chiefly conspicuous when the light is thrown obliquely, and of course greatly expanded. The proportions of their breadth also differ considerably in different circumstances; so that the regular progression pointed out by sir Isaac Newton is not so constant as to support any analogy. Our author's observation on the shadow also merits particular notice.

'When the distance of observation, from the hair under the circumstances of the experiment in observation β, was very small, and before the first bright streak of light began to appear, the shadow of the hair was distinct and well defined, and of intense blackness. At a greater distance, this shadow appeared to be divided by a parallel line of light, throughout its whole length, into two parts, and resembled a double shadow, or the shadows of two hairs, but was by no means of the same degree of blackness as was the single shadow observed close to the hair. At still greater distances it increased in breadth and diminished in blackness, whilst the transverse dimensions of the dividing line of light increased at the same time, until, at a considerable distance from the hair, this intermediate band or line of light began to put on the appearance of colours on its edges, and to assume, on both sides externally, casts of yellowish and reddish light. By further increase of distance, this apparent shadow, these dark intervals, became more diluted, and of nearly the same colour throughout, the line of light more and more diffused, and was at last extinguished by the extreme diffusion and ultimate invisibility of the light that produced it.' P. 32.

The theory of these appearances, which may in a great degree be imitated by a candle, is not very difficult. In the first instance only, near to the hair, is the shadow truly such. At a greater distance the inflected rays enlighten a little the part darkened, by intercepting the direct light; and when these inflected rays meet in the centre, that part becomes so luminous as to give the appearance of real light by comparison with the darker margins. We have however found that this is only *comparatively* real light.

'Close to the body, the shadow of the hair, and the whole of the passing light, apparently unchanged, may be observed. Further therefrom, that part of the light which constitutes the first fringe begins to put on a considerable brightness, and to be separated from the rest of the light by a dark line of shade. Further, and further still from the hair, the second and third fringes begin also to appear, together with the first, in the form of white streaks of light, separated by dark intervals. At greater distances, these breadths of white light begin to exhibit colours at their edges; and at distances yet greater than these, or by considerable obliquities of reception, they are decomposed and distributed into the three first fringes of the preceding observation β.

'Adjacent to these three, in a state of great dilution, approaching

to evanescence, are the subsequent fringes of the same observation; and adjacent to these last fringes, to some distance from them, the nearest light is divided into alternate streaks of white light and shade, or luminous and dark intervals, which, at the first and nearest distances being under the circumstances of this observation too small and too little separated for perception, and afterwards running into one another and mixing their colours, put on the appearance of white light, and can no longer be distinguished therefrom, up to the point where, by increased distance, the action of the hair ceases altogether on the passing light.' P. 34.

With respect to the production of these fringes, we have as yet made no advances. The language which attributes them to the decomposition of light, or rather to the separation of bundles of luminous rays, must be rejected, as too strictly mechanical. We see them closely connected with the attenuation of light. The breadths of these fringes, and their dark intervals, we have said, are not regular and constant. Our author supposes, that, in measuring these, Newton had the coloured rings, observed in other experiments, in view; but that he has not pursued the analogies, as the result would have militated against his principles for explaining the phænomena of light.

The author next proceeds to the observations on the fringes of colours produced by light passing over the edge of a knife. These are connected intimately with the former subject; but the particular explanation so closely depends on the diagrams, as to be scarcely intelligible without them. We shall add, however, the principle on which all these changes are produced, in our author's own words.

'The white rays of light are bent in passing by the side, edge, or angle of any thin plate or body, into lines of direction, deviating from their original course towards the body.

'The rays of light are not only so bent, they are also distributed or divided into different rays of different colours, in angles of dispersion, greater as the distances are less, and less as the distances are greater, in such a manner, that, of different colours at the same distance, the purples, blues, greens, yellows, and reds, are bent towards the body; the purples most, each of the others in due succession less, and the reds least, according to the order of their statement; and of colours of the same sorts at different distances, the nearer more than the more remote, and the more remote less than the nearer. So various however are the bendings of different colours at different distances, that in certain distinct portions of light, and at different distances of observation, the more remote and the nearer rays of different colours contained within each of these portions or divisions of the light become variously intermingled with each other, and, by their various intermixtures form each of these divisions into parti-coloured fringes; whilst the rays of different divisions never mixing with those of other divisions, the intervals of the divisions are preserved, and become the dark intervals which separate the fringes.

'Wherever the divergency of a beam of light is such, that by inflection a nearer red is less bent than all the other equidistant or nearer adjoining coloured rays, and more bent than all the other more remote but adjacent rays; and also a further purple is more bent than all the other equidistant or more remote coloured rays, and less bent than all the other nearer adjoining rays; there a dark interval will be produced, on the side of which, nearest to the body, the reds will appear; and on the side most remote, the purples and blues; and wherever two or more such intervals are produced, they include between them a fringe or fringes of various breadths and colours, depending upon the relations between the dispersions and bendings of the rays by the inflecting body and the original divergency of the beam, the purples and blues nearest, the reds furthest from the body.' P. 47.

The experiments of light passing through an aperture formed by the parallel edges of two knives afforded appearances very analogous to those observed by successively diminishing the aperture through which the beam was transmitted in the first experiments; but differing in some respects, as may easily be supposed, by the variation of circumstances and situation. The appearances are detailed with great minuteness, and elude every attempt to describe them in shorter words than those of the author. The experiments on the coloured fringes formed by the edges of two knives meeting at an angle are still more difficult to abridge. The appearances, we have reason to think, are described very correctly; but the author's account of them is so concise, and so closely compacted, that to those only who, like ourselves, have been engaged in similar observations, will it perhaps be intelligible.

Our author next notices the fringes produced in shadows of light, coloured in consequence of passing through a prism, and finds that the same circumstances and the same laws influence the coloured light, which affected the ray previous to its becoming coloured.

'It is plain therefore from the circumstances of this, and of all the foregoing observations, that the phænomena of the inflections of light are the consequences of the various bendings, separations, and changes produced in each of the separate portions of a beam of white light passing between the parts and particles of a transparent medium, by the action or attraction of the edge, angle, or side of an approaching body; each of these portions being variously bent and separated into other portions of differently-coloured lights, each of which being changed from and receiving a constitution or modification different from that of all the others, and from that of the original portion out of which it was derived, retains that constitution or modification permanently, until it be again re-united into the same, or a similar portion of white light, among the properties of which constitution or modification it is one; that passing at the same distance with rays of other colours from and by the edge of an in-

flecting body, it is constantly bent at angles of deviation different from those of all other colours; the purples most; the blues less than the purples; the yellows, greens, and reds, successively less and less, according to the order of their specification.

'Such a state and condition, and such changes of light, are absolutely necessary for the existence and regular formation, under different circumstances, of the fringes; they are conformable to the general nature and principles of things, and, being required, are established by the phænomena; and being established by, explain them.

'That a beam of white light is composed of rays of different sorts, originally and always distinct, and of various colours, which are only separated from one another, is an hypothesis inconsistent with all the phænomena of inflections.

'Indeed the very circumstance of the distribution of white light into colours, which admit of degrees and not of divisions, and the difficulty of conceiving in what manner, whether of particular arrangement, or undistinguished mixture, they must be re-united to form white, without conceiving or suspecting that differences might and, it would seem, ought to arise of colours from various orders or modes of combination, would lead us to infer the action of a principle which changes and modifies at the same time that it separates every portion of the white light, and requires an actual restoration of all things to the same original, or exactly similar circumstances of condition for its re-production.' P. 114.

This opinion we shall not be expected to controvert, as we have, partly from similar views, and partly from other considerations, adopted no very different sentiments, which we have often mentioned in this journal. Indeed we have advanced farther, and thought that light was coloured only in consequence of its attenuation. Could we have gone more at length into our author's experiments, we might have pointed out additional circumstances which support this doctrine, while some which seem to militate against it may probably admit of an explanation different from that which the author appears to have favoured. While he rejects the Newtonian theory, he is not however very clearly intelligible in that which should supply its place.

'If the rays be supposed to be confusedly mixed in the white light, no regular formation of the fringes can be expected to be produced from amidst such disorder; nor will these difficulties be removed by conceiving every beam of white light to be again divisible into smaller portions or beams of white light composed of all the various colours; since even in these again a peculiar arrangement is required, which yet shall, as different occasions demand, differ from itself; and without a given appropriate arrangement there can be no regular formation, according to the before established principles of existence of the fringes.

'The fringes require that complete sets of the different coloured rays should issue at the same time from each interstice or point of passage of the medium, each of which rays should be equally related

as to distance from the inflecting body on one side, and the particles of the medium on the other, at the time of distribution or separation, and equally related each afterwards as to distance and attraction to all the particles of the medium on all sides, and capable of being returned again, and of being united at the same time in the same place, under the same relations—circumstances altogether inconsistent with the nature of, and impossible with originally and perpetually different, distinct, and separate rays.

'The portions of light which pass through the intervals between the particles of bodies are truly and properly the rays of light.

'Thus it is firmly established, that in the inflections of light, each white ray of passing light is separated into many distinct rays; that of these rays, at the time of separation, each sustains a change; that this change constitutes a difference of each ray from every other, and from the original white ray; that this change or modification is permanent in each ray throughout all its future course of separate propagation; that this change or modification in each distinct ray operates, during all the future propagation of the ray, its different and appropriate effects; that this change or modification produces in each ray, under the same circumstances, unequal, and, under different circumstances, equal, changes of direction of course.' P. 119.

The consequences of all these discoveries we shall not pretend to anticipate. The author promises largely, and we trust he will keep his word. We shall notice in the two subsequent articles a continuation of these inquiries.

ART. XV.—*New Observations concerning the Colours of thin transparent Bodies, showing those Phænomena to be Inflections of Light; and that the Newtonian Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection derived from them have no Existence, but fail equally in their Establishment and in their Application by Newton to account for the Colours of natural Bodies.* 8*vo.* 4*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies.

ART. XVI.—*An Account of the Irides or Coronæ which appear around, and contiguous to, the Bodies of the Sun, Moon, and other luminous Objects.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Cadell *and* Davies.

WE notice these tracts together because the subjects are so nearly connected; and, though last in the period of publication, we shall first consider the 'Observations,' as they tend to elucidate the 'Account of the Irides.' In our former article we have offered our author's doctrine, with the experiments in its support, and have shown that he considers light to be coloured in consequence of inflection only. Why inflection should produce colour, he has not yet shown; and we would offer to his consideration the hypothesis of its arising from attenuation.

It is no more singular that attenuated light should be coloured, and condensed light brilliantly white, than that a thin lamina of coloured glass should show its peculiar hue, and a mass of the same glass appear black. But to return to our author.

He repeated the experiment of Newton respecting the coloured circles which appear in the thin plate of air, when two polished plates of glass are pressed together; and notices many circumstances which sir Isaac had overlooked. He examines also the phænomena of the soap-bubbles which depend on a thin plate of water of varying thickness, and finds that they result, equally with the appearances specified in the former tract, from inflection only. We quote the following conclusion, lest we might misrepresent the author if we employed other words; for he alludes somewhat obscurely to opinions not yet sufficiently explained.

'According to our principles of explanation, indeed, the ordinary affections of light passing from one transparent substance to another are not considered in the passage of the light of our experiments into or out of the thin plate. The fact is, that these ordinary affections are in a great measure taken away or suspended in plates of this sort, until they arrive at a definite thickness. The relative conditions of the surrounding medium or plate, upon which alone, independent of all density, the powers of reflecting or transmitting light at the surfaces of transparent bodies depend, are so changed within these limits, that the light passes into and out of the thin plate uninterruptedly; and this change is conformable to the general principles of formation and union upon which the existence and constitution of natural bodies depend, and is derived therefrom independently of any considerations respecting light. A discovery this in itself most important, and directly leading to a true knowledge of some of the most important phænomena of light.

'Thin transparent bodies do not therefore, according to their several thicknesses, reflect from and transmit through their further surfaces the different sorts of the rays of light, but their colours are produced by the inflexions of light within them.' P. 49.

The author next proceeds to examine the Newtonian doctrine of colours, on which various superstructures have been raised. As, however, the system of fits of easy transmission and reflection is properly rejected, even sir Isaac Newton's superstructure is effectually undermined. Indeed the preliminary proposition of the different densities of the media surrounding the air is not confirmed by experiment; and all these appearances are, in every respect, similar to those produced by the knives, whose edges meet at a rectilinear angle. Even the glasses, when pressed together, do not seem to be in actual contact. The observations on Newton's doctrine of colours show much acuteness, and, so far as they are connected with his principles,

are just: but much is here alleged in opposition, which does not entirely depend on these principles; and this is of unequal value. With an alteration of language only, many of Newton's remarks on this subject will be found to be philosophical and correct. The full explanation must be referred to our author's promised publication of new discoveries; in which, so far as we can judge, he will not consider the subject in a mechanical view: but he affords very slight hints only of what we may expect.

In the Account of the Irides, our author clearly shows that these appearances are not explicable on the principle of refraction, but that, from the colours, their order and occasional inversion, they depend very certainly on the same principle which produces the fringes at the angles of the knives. He confines his present inquiry, however, to the smaller haloes and circles round the sun, and does not attend to the particular state of the atmosphere in which they are observed; viz. its being filled with vesicular vapour. Indeed we see, from attending to a sunbeam, that there are always extraneous particles enough in the atmosphere to inflect or break some of the light into colours.

ART. XVII.—*Selim and Zaida. With other Poems.* 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees.

FROM the perusal of a very sensible critical dialogue prefixed to these poems, we were led to entertain an idea of the author's powers, which was by no means confirmed by the perusal of the poems themselves. The story of Selim and Zaida, which occupies more than two-thirds of the volume, opens with the amorous lamentation of the fair one, who is prevented by a tyrannic father from bestowing her hand upon the youth of her choice; and who, in the course of her poetic grief, informs her attendant Leila that her lover will come in the evening to resue her from confinement. The destined hour arrives—Zaida issues from the gate of the fortress, and is received by her faithful Selim. At this interesting crisis—

> ' 'Tis bliss.—Short bliss!—Lo, through the air
> The tones of Rage and Tumult swell;
> And many a torch with fiery glare
> Pours on their steps the blaze of hell.
>
> ' Dreadful in wrath the caliph comes.
> The lovers' flight has reach'd his ear.
> His dark cheek glows. His brow, in glooms
> Involv'd, declares their ruin near.' P. 27.

Selim is surrounded, and almost overpowered by the caliph's guards.

'A shout succeeds: and, quick as light,
On Selim spring the hostile band;
When, lo! a wonder meets their sight,
That stays each step, and numbs each hand.

'In Selim's grasp a sword of flame
Waves dreadful. Round it light'nings play.
The torches fade before its beam,
As moonlight dies before the day.

'Hark, 'tis a peal to rend the globe,
That bursts upon the midnight air!
What fear-proof bosom does not throb?—
Whose soul, unmov'd, th' event can dare?

'All nature is convuls'd. The main
Swells into foam, and loudly raves.
Wide through his fields the awe-struck plain
Trembles before th'approaching waves.

'Lo! that vast surge, of mountain height,
Itself a sea, frowns on the shore.
Slowly it rolls. Its course is Fate;
And Death's stern voice exalts its roar.

'One fear now yields to newer fears.
The wave's broad bosom opens wide;
And swift a flaming column rears
Its crest above the startled tide.

'It glows to heav'n. It seeks the land.
The caliph flies. Not such his haste,
Who, 'midst Arabia's wilds of sand,
Beholds the tyrant of the waste,

'The purple simoom, swiftly glide,
Thron'd on a car of burning air,—
Striking to dust the sons of pride,
Though oft the prostrate mov'd to spare:

'Or sees the hosts of sand arise,
Yet direr than the simoom's breath;—
Those giant shapes, whose course denies
All hope of flight, whose grasp is death.' P. 32.

This column contains an angel, who rescues Selim from his enemies.

'Then, on the 'lov'd of thee and heav'n,
On Zaida, all his vengeance turns.—
Before the dire command is giv'n,
His purpose in his fell eye burns.

" Seize the dishonour of her name,
And plunge her in the surging main.
Deep let his waters hide her shame,
And cleanse (if they can cleanse) her stain." P. 38.

This dire command is executed, and Zaida is plunged into the sea. During this transaction Selim is carried by the angel to the evening-star—a dull description of which occupies a considerable number of stanzas. Hither his beloved Zaida, rising from the waves, is conveyed, and the lovers are united by indissoluble bands. Selim, upon asking the ministering spirit how they have deserved his favour, is informed that their ethereal friend was once involved in rebellion against the Eternal, who doomed him to expiate his guilt by occasionally descending to earth, there to be tormented by the sons of men. While he was suffering from this decree, and was compelled, under the semblance of a poor decrepit man, to endure the revilings of the rabble, Selim interposed to protect him;—in return for which act of kindness the angel had rescued him from his imminent peril. Such is the outline of the story of Selim and Zaida; in the conduct of which the author evinces an accurate knowledge of Oriental manners and opinions, but offers few of those genuine traits of nature which interest the heart, and but little of that fertile imagination which captivates the fancy. The same remark may be applied to the remaining poems, which are not numerous. The following translation from the Italian of Lorenzo de' Medici is, however, neatly executed.

' O thou, whom queen the shores of Cyprus hail,
Leave those bright realms that own thy gentle sway;
Leave thy lov'd isle, and hither bend thy way,
Where this clear streamlet laves the flow'ry vale:
These shades invite thee; and this balmy gale,
To which the fountains murmur as they play;
And this sweet bird, who pours a melting lay,
While the woods listen to his amorous tale.

Oh, if thou com'st these lucid streams among,
Bring with thee, smiling pow'r, thy son so dear;
For here his arms, his godhead, scarce are known.
Take from Diana, take her virgin throng,
Who, wand'ring unrestrain'd, and void of fear,
His darts despise, his sovereign sway disown.' P. 87.

ART. XVIII.—*Sermons by the late Rev. William Elisha Faulkner.* 8*vo.* 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Rivingtons.

THESE are plain, pious, serious, practical sermons, well suited to the congregations before whom they were preached,

and better adapted to the meditations of the Sunday evening than many discourses of much greater celebrity, where language, elegance of style, arrangement, and sentiment, are the qualifications principally in vogue. The present are rather Scriptural sermons; for the writer is very liberal, and properly so, of his Scripture quotations—a practice which we cannot too much recommend to those who wish to communicate useful instruction to their parishes. A man may compose a very elegant discourse; he may be admired by hearers of education and taste; may be flattered by well-earned encomiums on his eloquence; but may yet be entitled to nothing more than the character of an orator:—the greater part of the congregation of such a preacher will be able to carry but little away with them of what they hear; and the discourse which he holds in contempt, grounded on plain sense, Scripture allusions, Scripture exhortations, Scripture threatenings, and Scripture proofs, will be found far more useful to the lower classes, and may be made to contain much of what the higher classes stand most in need of. Another striking circumstance in these discourses merits notice from the younger clergy, especially at a time when such infamous notions pass current, as that the articles of religion are merely articles of peace; and when, from the prevalence of these notions, as well as the practice of too many in the pulpit, it should seem that the Thirty-nine Articles are merely to be subscribed as a matter of form, before the bishop, and are never afterwards to be consulted or thought of by the subscriber. It has not been thus with the worthy preacher whose works are now before us: he is not ashamed either of the Scriptures or the Articles; and, so far from forgetting the latter, he refers continually to them, and thus proves to his hearers that he is, not only in name, but in deed and in truth, a minister of the church. Where so much merit prevails, we feel ourselves little inclined to criticise on the inferior parts of composition, the diction and arrangement of these discourses, which, though not cultivated quite so successfully as they ought to have been, are by no means altogether neglected. How zealous the preacher has been in inculcating divine truths, our readers may perceive from the manner in which he urges a doctrine that cannot be too much pressed on every audience; viz. reconciliation by the blood of Jesus.

'Brethren, you cannot but perceive the encouragement and consolation which our gracious Lord here designed to administer to every true penitent. Indeed this is the constant and uniform language of God our Saviour to poor, wretched, wandering sinners. Hear how it is expressed by Jeremiah, chap. iii. 21, 22. 'A voice was heard upon the high places, weeping and supplications of the children of Israel: for they have perverted their way, and they have forgotten the Lord their God. Return, ye backsliding children, and I will

heal your backslidings: behold, we come unto thee; for thou art the Lord our God." Yes, I may assure you, brethren, that God ever waits to be gracious, and that it is not his will that "any should perish, but that all should come to repentance." I am warranted therefore to invite every poor sinner, "appointed unto wrath" as a sinner against God, to come unto him and sue for mercy. There is, my dear brethren, redemption, plenteous redemption in the blood of Jesus Christ; and whosoever will, may come—(if he comes truly penitent and believing)—he may come and obtain mercy. God Almighty give some doubting soul to believe this! It is not improbable but that in this assembly there may be a person hanging down his head and saying, 'Alas, there is no hope! I have, I trust, repented of my former sins, and I am now endeavouring through grace to "bring forth fruits meet for repentance," and live to my Maker's praise; but such is the weakness and corruption of my mortal nature, and so many are my sins and temptations, that I fear and tremble for my future state.' But lift up thy head, oh poor distressed soul, and look at the compassionate Jesus suffering and dying for thy sins; and fear not, only believe. Can you so dishonour him as to think that his atonement is insufficient? Remember the verse preceding our text, and pray to God to enable you to put on "for an helmet the hope of salvation," that you may join the sweet declaration of the apostle,—"God hath not appointed us to wrath, but to obtain salvation by our Lord Jesus Christ."—Brethren, it is for want of more faith that so many refuse to be comforted who have been given to see the error of their ways, and made willing to be saved by the atonement of Christ. Far be it from me to speak peace to any man who wilfully continues in sin; but to the penitent sinner I would wish to open all the treasures of consolation which flow from the Redeemer's cross, that he may look forward with delight and joy to the second coming of Christ, and knowing and being assured that his complete redemption draweth nigh.' P. 406.

ART. XIX.—*Old Nick: a satirical Story. By the Author of a Piece of Family Biography, &c.* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 10*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Murray *and* Highley. 1801.

IT were ungrateful to criticise severely what has much amused us, and has not failed to entertain, even when repeated. Yet we must acknowledge that the story is in general not well connected; that it is, in many parts, improbable; and that some of the most striking characters are copied from other works. We suspect, however, that this story is intended only as the vehicle of humour, and that the author considers striking situations as of more importance than originality of character. The gloomy haughtiness of Keppel, the manly dignity of Barclay, and the placid good humour of Mr. Pawlet, are well supported. Mrs. Pawlet's character is somewhat extravagant. She is the aunt of Narcissa in Roderick Random, with the edu-

cation of miss Hollybourne in the Old Manor House. The whole, as we have said, is highly entertaining; and were we to add any very important objection, it would be the hasty and unsatisfactory *dénouement*.

We were greatly pleased with the character of the faithful Gregory, whose warm passions occasionally lead him into many scrapes. We will copy, as an instance of our author's manner, what relates to one of these.

'Alas! poor Gregory, to attack thee in such a situation! Madam, she beat him with a brush, until he was obliged to cry for quarters. She then opened the door, and he was glad to sneak away disgraced and discomfited. Such, indeed, is commonly the end of most love affairs!

'But to use the words of a noble lord, "The gallant who goes about to open the trenches in this manner will generally" (like Gregory) "be soon obliged to raise the siege."

'Keppel's maid having never seen Gregory before, and he thinking it full as well, after what had happened, to retire without delivering his message, she could not identify the person who had been there, and, during his absence, committed such an alarming outrage on her virtue. However, as she had fought such a good fight, she was resolved not to lose all the advantage her reputation might derive from it; she therefore described every thing to her master on his return, as minutely as she was able. But she dwelt so much on her own *spotless virtue*, and gave such a confused account of the ravisher, that none but Keppel, who, knowing Gregory's propensity, shrewdly suspected it was him [*he*], could have gathered any thing from it.

'Telling Barclay the circumstance next day, without intimating his suspicions, our hero exclaimed, before he had half finished, "As I live, 'twas Gregory! the scoundrel!"

"I guessed as much," cried Keppel, "but we may be both wrong—I am to dine with you to day; let us devise some plan to sound him."

'This being agreed upon, at dinner, while Gregory was waiting, Barclay said in a careless manner, "Did you go to my friend's with that message yesterday, Gregory?"

"Message?" he replied, in a way as if he had forgotten it.

"Yes," added the other, "the message that I told you to deliver in the course of the evening."

"Ay," cried Gregory, not wishing to tell a lie, and catching at the word *deliver*, "I recollect now—no, sir, I did not deliver it."

'Keppel seeing they were baffled here, went on thus, addressing himself to Barclay.

"A-propos of yesterday—The strangest thing happened whilst I was out, that you ever heard. A man, I know not who, called at my chambers, and, being told that I was not at home, he rushed in, and ravished my maid-servant."

'Gregory kept rubbing the glasses, as if he meant to rub them to pieces.

" Bless me!" cried Barclay, with affected surprise: "Pray, what time of the day was it?"

" Sometime in the evening," replied the other.

" Well," said our hero, looking stedfastly at Gregory, whose confusion evidently betrayed his guilt, " I am glad, *sir*, to understand that you were not there last night."

' When we say *sir*, to a gentleman, we mean to employ an honorable term; but when we apply it to a servant, as—" So, sir," or as it is used above, it is merely an abbreviation of *sir-rah*. Gregory felt the full force of the word, and knew his master's suspicions; but not caring to acknowledge the fact, he bowed respectfully to conceal his blushes, and then turned round as if he had something to do at the sideboard.

' Keppel had made a little embellishment, but, finding that of no effect, proceeded to magnify still further.

" Now," said he to Barclay, " I would have forgiven the fellow for any thing that he did with the girl, since his passions might have run away with him, but I can never pardon his descending to steal the silver candlestick."

" If I did, I'll be damn'd!" cried Gregory, turning hastily around; " as I hope for mercy, I stole nothing!" Vol. i. p. 99.

A character, which does not often occur in novels, also interested us. It is drawn with much simplicity and truth. We mean that of *madame*, the kept-mistress of a careless man of fashion. We cannot, however, recommend this part of the story as correctly moral, or indeed proper, for a popular work.

We shall add a specimen, descriptive of the benevolent Pawlet and his pedantic wife.

' After breakfast the next morning, Mrs. Pawlet and Barclay, as before, withdrew to the library, there to pursue their respective studies. They had not been there long, however, before their curiosity was excited by a great bustle below stairs. Mrs. Pawlet consequently rang the bell, and was presently informed that the noise was occasioned by the parson, who had just learned from the gardener that his bees had swarmed. The moment Mrs. Pawlet heard this, she stalked up to the further end of the study, and whipping Virgil under her arm, bolted out of the room. Barclay, curious to see the bees swarm, followed her into the garden. Immediately Mrs. Pawlet saw the parson, she exclaimed,

" Tinnitusque cie, et Matris quate cymbala circum!"

" I have no cymbal, my dear," said the parson, " but here comes the gardener with the poker and shovel, and that must answer the purpose."

' The parson now began beating away; and the bees gradually collected together and hung from the bough of a tree. Mrs. Pawlet, having during this time seated herself on a bench, began the fourth Georgic, which she read aloud, notes and all, commenting herself also as she proceeded.—Penelope was absent.

" It was a doubt," said Mrs. Pawlet, " with Aristotle, whether the bees assembled together, on hearing the sound of brass, through fear or joy. Plato and Pliny, I find, attributed it to the latter: Varro and Columella to the former. I am with the *Attic* Moses—I am with Plato."

" Well, well, my dear," said the parson, who did not in the present case care what was the cause so that the effect was good, " I see they are very quiet now, and if I could but catch the queen-bee all would soon be right."

" Why do you call it the queen?" cried Mrs. Pawlet. " Virgil expressly says, *rex*, the king. I know the moderns, who will always be pretending to discoveries, say that they suffer but one queen-bee; and that the business of preserving the species is entirely carried on by her and the drones.—But I am shocked at this, and prefer siding with the more modest Virgil:

" ——— e foliis natos et suavibus herbis
Ore legunt: ipsæ regem, par- - - - "

Here she was interrupted by the parson exclaiming,

" Bless me! there she goes again.—There—there. She has fixed upon Mrs. Pawlet, as I live! Sit still, my dear, don't move for the world, and they won't hurt you."

' Mrs. Pawlet had not time to inquire what he meant before her left shoulder and arm were entirely covered with bees. She was alarmed; but the parson entreating her not to touch them, and that then there was no danger, she sat still, perspiring through apprehension, until they were all settled. The parson now seised the queen-bee and put her into a hive, whither the swarm soon followed, and relieved Mrs. Pawlet from her fright. I should have said, however, that previous to this event she had abused the parson for taking so much pains about recovering his bees; affirming that she could produce him any quantity he pleased, according to Virgil, from the putrefied bowels of bulls. This the parson listened to with his usual temper, but still in his mind treated it with all the disrespect it deserved. However, Mrs. Pawlet declared that she would kill a bull at her own expense, to cure the scepticism she saw in her husband, notwithstanding his manner; but this late accident had given her such a surfeit of bees, that she resolved to have nothing more to do with them.

' Being clear of the swarm, she shut her Virgil, and returned with Barclay to the library, conversing on the obstinacy of those presuming moderns who prefer themselves to the sagacious ancients.' Vol. ii. P. 150.

The style and manner is too pointedly an imitation of Sterne's Sentimental Journey, and not quite free from its pruriency. Of the less exceptionable parts we shall add one other specimen.

' Now I'll give—no money, for I've got none to spare:—but I'll give the reader (if she's pretty) as many kisses as will make her lips as red as roses; or supposing the reader to be an abominable

male animal, I'll give him,—I'll give him, this old, dry, stump of a pen, as a memento. All this, I say, will I bestow on them, if they will be so kind as to tell me how Keppel acted in the affair just related, and what he did with Gregory after he had shut the door. What say you? You can't guess. Well then, miss, I shall keep my kisses and my pen to myself.

'I hate systems. The division of time is one of the most unpardonable. Why must an eternal, never-ending thing be degraded by being divided into such paltry things as years, and months, and weeks? Why are we obliged, after every seven days we live, to have Monday again? How much better would it be to let Time run on his glorious course without mincing him in this base manner? And if we must have a name for each period between the rising and the setting of the sun, let us have a new one, one we have not lived before. In a word, let us not, for heaven's sake, be tacked to *Mondays* all the time of our existence! By this grand and noble way of living, so worthy of immortal beings, we shall entirely abolish quarter-day. What can be more desirable?

'There is but one thing I will be bound to, and that is, to do nothing. Perhaps I shall not go on with my story in this volume, and perhaps I shall unravel the whole mystery in the next chapter. Come then, as we have got rid of the dull, heavy, labour of narration, at least for this chapter, let's have some fun! Ay, but I said not long ago that you should not smile for fifty pages. It was a lie. Read my preface—I promised to tell you nothing else. Let me be consistent and chaste in my conduct, madam, I beg, although you may please to be otherwise.' Vol. i. p. 59.

Much learning is scattered through these pages—and some of a recondite, or at least a less common kind, which will perhaps entertain more than the usual attendants on a circulating library. The author's reading appears to have been extensive, but desultory. We have not heard his name even conjectured, except that, in a foreign journal, these volumes are attributed to a Mr. Dubois.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 20.—*Village Sermons; or, Twelve plain and short Discourses on the principal Doctrines of the Gospel; intended for the Use of Families, Sunday-Schools, or Companies assembled for Religious Instruction in Country Villages. By George Burder. 4 Vols. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed.* Chapman.

A PRACTICE has lately commenced in various parts of this island, which in many places may be attended with very good effects; but, as it is liable to great abuse, it requires the watchful eye of all who are awakened to the truths of Christianity. It presents itself under the most favorable aspect—that of preaching the Gospel to the poor,—and is countenanced by those among the clergy of the established church who assume the name of evangelical preachers, and those among the dissenters who would be regarded as more serious than the body at large. A society of neighbouring ministers agree among themselves to preach alternately in the adjoining villages, on week-days or Sunday evenings, hereby giving to their casual hearers the enticing charm of variety, and rendering their own employment easy by such division of labour. Far from discouraging such an attempt to preach the Gospel to the poor, we regard it in many cases as highly praise-worthy; and contemplate the hour spent by associate villagers as just so much time frequently rescued from the ale-house, and in every instance employed in a manner truly useful and salutary. But it is our duty to mark the consequences of this mode of preaching, as it relates to the national church. The connexion between the evangelical clergy and the dissenting ministers of all persuasions, under the idea of their being united together by the great bond of the Gospel, becomes hereby so firmly established, that every one makes it his pride to be a ready attendant where another associates. The people also who are thus alternately edified, repair on Sundays to such neighbouring towns as afford them an opportunity of hearing the Gospel preached according to their ideas of it, and thus desert their parish-churches for foreign places of worship. Hence the attachment to the established church is daily weakened; and there is no way of restoring its vigour but by the assiduity of its ministers in their pulpits, and an augmented intercourse with their parishioners.

From these sermons the clergy may learn in what manner they ought to employ themselves; although the preacher's object—that, we mean, of conveying to the poor the great truths of the Gospel in the plainest language possible—is not always obtained. The terms selected are frequently too learned for common capacities. Their chief feature—and which is the common characteristic of

the evangelical mode of preaching—is an address to the passions: and the passion of fear is more frequently resorted to than that of love. This mode of instruction is certainly very easy and very popular; but there appears no small degree of impropriety in it—for the Gospel in its very meaning implies '*good tidings;*' and under the Gospel dispensation we are rather called upon to consider the Supreme Being in his character described by St. John—'God is love.'

We were not surprised, in the course of the work, to find every subject of controversy introduced and defended with very little attention to any thing that had been advanced by its adversaries. In one place this inattention is so very gross, that we cannot let it pass without reprehension. The preacher assumes for his text, 1 John v. 7, 'There are three that bear record in heaven—the Father, the Word, and the Holy Ghost; and these three are one.' This passage, it is now well known, is altogether spurious, and was never written by St. John; yet, as if the proof had not been before the public, the orator, with unpardonable audacity, asserts—

'Perhaps you will be told that this verse is not found in some ancient manuscripts of the New Testament, but has been added by the Trinitarians. But we are assured by men of the first learning and credibility, that it is found in the most ancient copies; and whoever examines, will find that the sense of the chapter is not complete without it.' Vol. iii. p. 3.

For the latter part of this asseveration we do not blame—we pity, the writer; since, if he really think as he asserts, the error exists in his intellects: but the disingenuity contained in the former paragraph admits of no justification. Ought he not, in common ingenuousness, to have told his hearers that men also of the first learning and credibility deny that the verse is found in any ancient manuscript of the Greek Testament? And is he not reprehensible for making this controverted passage his text, and thus endeavouring to give it an additional stamp of authenticity?

We are too well acquainted with preachers of this description to expect them to pay much attention to the point which they will call *carnal learning:* but, whatever may be the doctrines which any party preaches, it is the great interest of the public that the book which we all defend should be preserved from error. The opinions of fallible men will die away: yet the world should be careful who take upon themselves the important task of communicating instruction to the poor; and when such persons think that they have a call to preach, let them remember that the popularity attending them is no proof of spirituality; for prophecy has long since declared that the time will come when men shall have itching ears.

ART. 21.—*Internal and presumptive Evidences of Christianity, considered separately, and as uniting to form one Argument. By John Simpson.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Egerton. 1801.

This is an excellent compilation; and they who have not access to a great number of books will here find collected together the sentiments of the best writers of our nation on the most important sub-

jects. The compiler himself also is entitled to great merit for his mode of arranging and connecting together his materials; and the argument is treated in such a manner, that, although it should fail to have an effect on a very prejudiced believer, the Christian reader will rise up with renewed satisfaction in the wisdom of God, as it appears in the life of our Saviour, and the acts recorded of him by the Apostles. The work is digested in a series of propositions; and, besides the author's quoting largely on every point, there are constant references to others who have written on the same subject. The result of the evidence produced is stated in the following terms.

'We have shown, that there is no peculiar presumption against either a revelation in general, or Christianity in particular, previous to an examination into the evidences of them; but that there are several strong presumptions in favour of the divine authority of Jesus and his religion. We have also manifested, that the New Testament bears peculiarly forcible and very various internal marks of credibility. We have further evinced, that the accounts of the several arguments to which Christ appeals in his own favour, are attended with numerous and powerful internal and presumptive evidences, that such proofs were really exhibited as establish the divinity of his mission.

'Let the reader maturely weigh each argument separately, and, also, as concurring with all the rest, to form one consistent body of proof. With the widest and most accurate view that his mind can take of so large and varied a field of evidence, let him calmly and impartially consider, whether it be probable, or even possible, that such numerous, various, and distinguishing characters of truth, coming from such different quarters, many of them having no previous connexion with each other, should all so exactly tally and coincide in favour of what is not true. If, upon such a survey, he thinks it is not probable that this should be the case, then he must think it is not probable that Jesus was either an enthusiast or an impostor; and, therefore, he must think it probable, that he was what he pretended to be. If he thinks there could not be such a concurrence to justify a falsity, then he must directly conclude that Jesus had a divine commission, and that his religion was from God.' P. 632.

ART. 22.—*The Millennium; or, cheerful Prospects of the Reign of Truth, Peace, and Righteousness; and serious Reflexions on the Commencement of the New Century: Two Discourses, preached—the First on November* 5, 1800, *and the Second on January* 4, 1801—*in the New Chapel, Bridport, with Notes. By Thomas Howe.* 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.* Longman *and* Rees.

These discourses are printed at the request of the congregation before which they were delivered; and we beg leave to add our testimony to that of the congregation—that 'they appear well calculated to promote the important cause of Christian truth, liberty, and righteousness.' The preacher does not attempt, like a modern poet, to fix the time when the glories of the Millennium are to be displayed, but advances it as a truth established by prophesy, that the afflictions of the church will cease, and the kingdoms of the world become the kingdoms of God and his Christ. On this happy period he

makes many pious and judicious reflexions; and he gives three remarkable criteria of it; namely, 'the general diffusion of knowledge and truth, the establishment of liberty and peace, and the practice of piety and righteousness. In the second discourse, the commencement of the century is made the introduction to very serious reflexions on the brevity of life, on the wisdom of God in appointing a succession of generations, and, amidst the fluctuating state of all human affairs, on his own immutability. Hence consolation is derived, as it respects the Christian cause, or the support which individuals receive from Providence. On the first head, it is to be piously considered that 'the religion of the Gospel cannot fail.'

'Christianity has hitherto survived the most formidable oppositions, according to the prediction of its divine author. It has hitherto subsisted in various ages and countries, and during successive generations. And we have no reason to fear for the ark of God, or the truth of his word.

'The Christian, indeed, cannot but lament the wide spread of infidelity, and the rejection of the Gospel by many who rank among the acute and ingenious. But he looks to God, he considers his invariable faithfulness, and immediately every apprehension that the Christian cause will fail for want of due support is banished from his mind, and he chides his desponding fears.

'Though the religion of Jesus has been so much corrupted, and its corruptions have been a fruitful source of infidelity, when he considers the prophecies of the word of God, he sees that this was predicted. An antichristian power was to arise in the very bosom of the church, and make the Christian system a quite opposite thing from what it was when it came out of the hands of its divine author. He perceives that this power was to reign and flourish for an appointed time, then decay, and at length be totally destroyed. As the former part of this prophecy has been fulfilled, to the disgrace of humanity and religion, we have good reason for concluding that the latter will be accomplished.' P. 49.

Both discourses are written with equal perspicuity and gravity. The mind of the preacher was evidently impressed with the awful truths communicated through his means to the congregation; and they are calculated to inspire every serious Christian with the firmest confidence in the hand of Providence, which over-rules the perplexed and intricate politics of the world, and adjusts them to his own wise and salutary purposes.

ART. 23.—*The Church of England vindicated from Misrepresentation; showing her genuine Doctrines as contained in her Articles, Liturgy, and Homilies. With a particular Reference to the 'Elements of Christian Theology, by the Bishop of Lincoln.' By a Presbyter of the Church of England.* 8vo. 3s. Mawman. 1801.

Are the Articles of the church of England Calvinistic, or the contrary? and in what sense did the framers of them, and their successors for more than a hundred years after their projection, subscribe to them?——In opposition to the prevalence of fashion, our presbyter takes up the Calvinistic gauntlet, and maintains his opinion with

great firmness. The novel doctrines of the bishop of Lincoln, of whose diocese he professes himself a member, he opposes most strenuously, and points out several striking contradictions between his 'New Elements of Christian Theology' and the Articles and Canons of the church.

'Had your lordship lived with Ridley, Hooper, Latimer, or Cranmer, could you have maintained the articles in the sense they held them, or gone to the stake in the maintenance of them? Compare every page of their writings with your Christian Theology. Would you have appointed Peter Martyr or Bucer, known and professed Calvinists, to the theological chairs of the two universities, or ordained the pupils who attended their lectures, and avowed their sentiments? Had your lordship been called to Lambeth, must you not have marked with abhorrence the articles drawn up there by your episcopal brethren? Had your publication come before the university when Barret and Baro preached against the Calvinistic doctrines, must you not have gone into the university pulpit, and made a public recantation, or been expelled?' P. 9.

These are forcible questions; and whatever may be the opinions at present maintained in the church, whether more or less agreeable to Scripture than heretofore, we cannot hesitate to join with our presbyter in the assertion that his doctrines are of closer consistency with those of our first reformers than the new system which comes forward so boldly under the sanction of the episcopal authority of the day.

The subject is of a serious and most important nature; and the writer is impressed with a due sense of the solemnity of subscribing to articles of faith. We cannot too frequently bring this matter before the public, nor too seriously adjure the clergy and candidates for the ministry to attend to the plain dictates of honour and conscience, in opposition to the impious and abominable sophisms advanced by some celebrated Cambridge divines, which render the act of subscription nugatory and absurd.

'How glaring' (observes our author most pertinently) 'must be the conduct of any bishop, priest, or deacon, who avows his abhorrence and disbelief of any article which he hath so solemnly avouched, as proved by most certain warrants of Holy Scripture? Let every man of candour and conscience judge what must be the state of a person's soul, in the sight of a heart-searching God, who makes such a confession of faith, holds all his church preferments under it, and continues to enjoy them, though he openly denies the professions he has made to be true, and proceeds even to brand, as false and abominable, what he hath subscribed as proved by most certain warrant of Holy Scripture!' P. 38.

The attack made by the bishop of Lincoln upon the Athanasian creed has struck the world with astonishment. Whatever may be its merits or demerits, no one could have suspected that the latter should be proclaimed to the world by episcopal authority, or that, 'at the late ordination, on Trinity Sunday, at Bugden,' (as the writer asserts on information) 'the Athanasian creed was not read.' It is

certainly very consistent with the bishop's avowed opinions to forbear the repetition of this creed in his presence on Trinity Sunday, or any other occasion: but what becomes of the authority of the church, which has ordered the creed to be read on that day at least?

'That it is very inconsistent and presumptuous in the bishop to subscribe, as proved by most certain warrants of Holy Scripture, what he declares to have no warrant from Scripture, is evident; and to begin an exposition of the doctrinal articles of the church with an explicit disavowal of her creed, and in the article in question, standing in strict connexion with the whole system, and itself of singular importance, as involving the eternal state of millions, is not a little extraordinary. I hope he will not expel me from his diocese for preferring the acknowledged authority of the church to any one of her recreant sons.' P. 60.

'Admitting the truth of the creed, those who without doubt perish everlastingly, afford an awful scene, at which the bishop expresses his abhorrence, and not only entertains doubts, but brands the Church itself, and her authority, with all who, as true churchmen in former or present times, believe the doctrine to be proved by most certain warrant of Holy Scripture, as unwise, inconsistent, and presumptuous.' P. 61.

This extraordinary conduct towards the church must be deemed by every one highly injurious to its interests; and the opinion of the writer before us, to which, as it stands in the following extract, we give our unlimited assent, we recommend to the serious attention of all who have any regard for the truths of the Gospel and the doctrine and discipline of the church of England.

'I would just observe, that in our articles of faith no link can be broken without dissolving unity of opinion. The whole system may be wrong, disputed, refuted, if the Scripture so admits; but the whole, as a formula of doctrine designed to prevent diversity of opinion, must stand or fall together. I am not at liberty to select what I like, and reject what displeases me. If the whole be not consistent with the Scripture, and with itself, it must be renounced as the doctrines of men, and not subscribed, as proved by most certain warrants of Holy Scripture.' P. 62.

The writer's opinion is sanctioned in the strongest manner by the authority of the church in its fifth canon.

'Whoever shall affirm that any of the articles agreed upon for providing against diversity of opinion are in any part erroneous, or such as he may not with a good conscience subscribe unto, let him be excommunicated *ipso facto*.' P. 62.

The positive language of the church may be some excuse for the decisive tone with which our presbyter maintains its authority.

'The bishop' (he says) 'should review his broad assertions, and

compare them with his own standard of doctrine. I plead not against those who reject the authority of the church. Every man has a right to search the Scripture for himself; but a bishop, a minister, a member of the church of England, stands (αυτοκαταχριτος) without excuse, who rejects the authority to which he solemnly professes his assent and consent.' P. 154.

The writer is evidently one of the party usually denominated evangelical; and he affords us traces of that masterly pen which lately delineated the history of the church. In the diocese of Lincoln there are, we understand, several presbyters who adopt the same opinions; and the opposition between these and the bishop of their diocese, reminds us of the awful asseveration—'a house divided against itself cannot stand.' The question should assuredly be decided. Either let the articles, the liturgy, the homilies, and the canons—for they all must stand or fall together—be wholly relinquished, and a new code of ecclesiastical doctrines and discipline be framed upon clearer views (if any such there be) of Christianity; or let the present system be supported with honesty and zeal: let it not be impugned by those whose honours and emoluments are derived from it: let it be asserted that, without infringing on the toleration due to every other sect, the church is resolved to secure the allegiance of its own members. The present state of things has a tendency to give too much encouragement, on the one hand, to fanaticism, under the name of evangelical instruction; and, on the other, to fill the church with a body of clergy opposers, or, at least, very indifferent supporters of its express tenets.

ART. 24.—*A Blow at the Root of Infidelity; or the Agreement of Nature and Scripture in Testimony of a Triune God; a Sermon. By the Rev. John Chamberlain, Bath.* 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1801.

If we were not convinced that the author of this work wrote from the purest motives, and was a complete believer in the doctrine which is maintained in it, we should have supposed that the former part of the publication had been intended rather as a burlesque on, than a serious proof of, the article of the Trinity. To suppose that the material heavens can lead us to the knowledge of the Trinity, and that there is a trinity in unity in them, can only tend to confuse our opinions on a very important topic, which ought to be examined only by the light of revelation. As a text to this strange composition, is given the spurious verse in the First Epistle of St. John, in the vulgar translation; a circumstance which leads us to form a very indifferent opinion of the biblical talents of the writer, to whom we recommend a serious attention to the words and spirit of the sacred writings, instead of trifling deductions from vain philosophy.

ART. 25.—*Thoughts upon modern Religion, and its Influence on modern Manners.* 8vo. 1s. Rivington. 1801.

Our expectations were raised at the commencement of this work, but were not gratified at its termination. The writer introduces the early reformers to make their reflexions on the events which have taken place within the last twelve years. The prostration of Anti-

christ was an event to which they looked forward with the utmost confidence: they triumphed in the idea; but what must be their surprise to perceive their descendents so far from rejoicing in the fall of popery, that the tidings of its re-establishment are received with pleasure, and that the British troops are adorned with honours from a pope and a Mahometan prince. The pen of a great master might be employed on such a subject; but our author very soon quits it, to dilate on the supposed frequency of adultery, dueling, and boxing, among us. The duties of the Sabbath, it is true, are too much neglected; and this shameful conduct is a marked feature in the degeneracy of modern days. The omission of family devotion is another point on which the writer with justice expatiates; and we could wish that the example of one of our legislators was followed in every house; for, in the family of that gentleman, no company, no consideration whatever, prevents their assembling together before breakfast for short prayers, and the perusal of a portion of the Scriptures, or a book on religious subjects. They who have had the advantage of being in such families know that the spirit of devotion is no obstacle to cheerfulness and happiness, and that all the duties of social life are best performed where parent and child, master and servant, daily bend the knee before the Creator, and where each, in consequence thereof, with a grateful heart enters on his daily occupation.

ART. 26.—*Extracts Moral and Sacred; or a few Hints selected from the Writings of the Wise and Good, in Support of the Cause of Religion and good Order. By the Rev. D. Yonge, M. A. &c.* 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Rivingtons.

This compilation is made with great judgement, from the works of Burnet, De Lue's Histoire de l'Homme, Bryant on the Authenticity of the Scriptures and the Plagues of Egypt, David Levi, Soame Jenyns, Locke, and Stillingfleet. The concurrent testimony of these eminent men to the truths of religion may be well introduced by every clergyman to the parlours of the higher order of his parishioners; and we cannot but recommend to such the spirit with which the preface is indited.

'Having spoken of the gentlemen of the dissenting interest, I cannot help adding a word of serious admonition, though perhaps neither party will pay any attention to it. When heavy imputations are laid by the writings of one to the charge of the other, and any thing like animosity prevails among Christians, I cannot help saying, "Sirs, ye are brethren, why do ye wrong one to another?" Weak master though I be, I say in words of the highest authority to those of the establishment, "By this shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye have love one towards another." "Judge not, that ye be not judged." Upon the same authority I say to the dissenter, and if he receive the Gospel he must bow to it with submissive reverence, "This is my commandment, that ye love one another as I have loved you. Put away from you all envy, wrath, malice;" and, if I could join you both together in the common cause of truth, I would add, "Love the brotherhood, fear God, honour the king" If

ye do not the things that I say, men cannot know that ye are Christ's disciples indeed. If, classing yourselves among his disciples, ye will not listen to one of the most prominent lessons of his law, how true is your master's declaration, "Narrow is the way that leadeth unto life, and few there be that find it."

* * * *

'And would to God that the times were such that all men would be at peace with one another, that our enemies would be at peace with us, and that we could be so far of one mind in one house, that the wisdom of our governors could find it safe and prudent to remove all such invidious distinctions, which I have for years taught myself to believe rather tended to the promotion of discord than to the establishment of peace.' P. xxi.

ART. 27.—*The Anniversary Sermon of the Royal Humane Society, preached at the Parish Churches of Kensington, April* 19, *and of St. Lawrence, Reading, June* 17, 1801. *By W. Langford, D. D. &c. Dedicated (by Permission) to his Majesty, and published for the Benefit of the Charity.—An Appendix by the Society, on shipwrecked Mariners, Resuscitation, &c.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1801.

Every friend to humanity must wish well to the society before whom this sermon was preached. It contains some affecting sentiments on the modes of death which fall under the notice of the society. In the Appendix are given directions for the recovery of persons apparently dead; and with pleasure we read, that by means of this institution 'two thousand five hundred and eighty-nine persons have been restored to life, to their parents, to their families, and to the state.' Subscriptions are received by the following bankers: Baron Dimsdale and Sons; Barnard and Son; Down, Thornton, and Free; Drummonds; Fuller, Chatteris, and Co.; Dr. Fothergill, Bath; and Dr. Haweis, treasurer, N° 8, Spital-square. Several of our readers will, we are persuaded, avail themselves of this information; and it must ever be a satisfaction to us to be in any degree instrumental in promoting the useful designs of so laudable an institution.

ART. 28.—*Address to the Inhabitants of the United Kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, on the Termination of the War with France. By the Rev. Thomas Robinson, A. M. &c.* 8*vo.* 4*d.* Rivingtons. 1801.

Pious reflexions on the approach of peace.—The prospects presented to us of the future will, we hope, be realised. 'We may fairly calculate,' says our author, 'upon a considerable reduction of expense, and the removal of some heavy burdens, which the country indeed has borne with a patriotic cheerfulness, but not without painful exertions and sacrifices of private comfort.' But if the writer expect rather too much, his reflexions on past transactions deserve attention; and of several of our more brilliant successes he thus speaks:—'Alas! how often have our victories been celebrated in such a way, as if we worshipped the heathen deities, and not the God of Christians!'

ART. 29.—*A Sermon preached before the worshipful the Mayor, &c. of the Town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, on Friday the 13th Day of February, 1801, being the Day appointed by his Majesty for a general Fast. By the Rev. William Stow Lundie, B.A.* 4to. 1s. Law.

Among a variety of topics selected for the meditation of the mayor, &c. of the town of Berwick, the union with Ireland holds a distinguished place; and on other accounts also this may be ranked among those political sermons which, if they must be pronounced from the pulpit, we never wish to see spring up from the press.

ART. 30.—*A Sermon preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, on Sunday, April 26, 1801, on returning Thanks for his Majesty's Recovery from a dangerous Sickness. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D.D. &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1801.

A panegyric on the king, which, however well deserved, is not suited to the pulpit. The praises bestowed on a living monarch in an elaborate oration can seldom be free from the imputation of flattery.

ART. 31.—*A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Dudley, on Friday, February 13th, 1801, the Day appointed for a general Fast; containing an Address to British Soldiers, (a respectable Body of whom being then present,) by the Rev. L. Booker, LL.D. Published, by Request, for the Benefit of the Soup Charity in the said Parish, and dedicated, with Permission, to his Royal Highness the Duke of York.* 8vo. 1s. West *and* Hughes. 1801.

'The critical reader will be pleased candidly to regard the discourse as a composition not originally meant to meet the public eye, and to ascribe its imperfections rather to the understanding than the heart.'

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 32.—*A Treatise on the new-discovered Dropsy of the Membranes of the Brain, and Watery Head of Children; proving that it may be frequently cured, if early discovered. With Objections to Vomits, &c. &c. To which are added, Observations on Errors in Nursing; on the Diseases of Children, their Treatment, &c. proper for the Contemplation of Parents. By William Rowley, M.D. &c.* 8vo. 2s. Murray *and* Highley. 1801.

This newly-discovered disease is only the hydrocephalus externus, the accumulation of water existing between the arachnoid membrane and the pia mater. This membrane is very inconsiderable in bulk and contexture; indeed scarcely more than a cellular texture connecting the dura and pia mater. The whole is displayed with great pomp, and the distinction ostentatiously expanded. The latter however is sufficiently clear, from what has been said of the hydrocephalus internus; for, unfortunately, there are no symptoms of distinction between these two diseases; though the enlarged sutures, the extended fontanelle, and the particular fluctuation felt there,

will distinguish the dropsy of the membranes from that of the ventricles.

The cure is detailed with equal pomp: but we shall transcribe the indications, which will give a sufficient idea of the author's plan.

'The rational indications of cure, from what has been premised, appeared to be the following:

'1. To attract and evacuate fluids from the exhalants of the most contiguous parts, by means of blisters, to the sutures and whole hairy scalp, according to the exigency of the case, and to continue the discharge copiously.

'2. To promote perspiration, and stimulate the absorbents by calomel and antimony, and keep the body warm.

'3. To act upon the torpid enervated stomach and intestines, and occasionally to evacuate serum by mercurial and stimulating cathartics.

'4. To impart tone and vigor to the debilitated habit by tonics of bark, steel, vitriolated zinc, acid, or sweet elixir of vitriol.

'5. The instituting a very dry diet, that the corroborating effects of the tonics may not be counteracted and defeated, by diluting drinks or slops, tea, &c.

'6. After the cure to still continue the tonics, dry nourishing diet, and warm clothing, to prevent a future relapse.' P. 22.

This plan differs little from that of the case of hydrocephalus internus, only that the blisters to the sutures may in this last disease be omitted. If the dropsy of the brain be ever cured, it is, we believe, by the tonic plan, with small doses of calomel, leaving the rest to the simple powers of nature. We have cured many so; though, in our younger days, we were more fond of a variety of medicines.

The observations on nursing contain some good remarks, joined with a number of strange fancies. Among the latter we reckon the opinions, that suffering the legs to be uncovered renders them misshapen, and that frequent vomiting tends to produce dropsy of the brain. The author would change the children's dress four times a year; viz. linen in summer, calico in spring and autumn, and flannel in winter. This would be very proper, if he could also change the temperature of the air at will, or command it to obey the orders of the calendar.

ART. 33.—*A Collection of Testimonies respecting the Treatment of the Venereal Disease by Nitrous Acid, published by Thomas Beddoes, M. D.* 8*vo.* 4*s. sewed.* Johnson.

This indefatigable author continues to pursue this worn-out subject: but we are now so much habituated to confident assertions, and have so often experienced their fallacy, that we read them with diffidence and distrust. Our scepticism is almost at its height. On the efficacy of the nitrous acid in syphilis the best practitioners are nearly agreed, and consign it to equal oblivion and contempt with that of digitalis in hectics. To the new reports are added, 'Observations on the Cases published by Mr. Blair,' and 'Remarks on various Questions that have arisen during the Investigation of the Antisyphilitic Virtues of the Nitrous Acid.'

ART. 34.—*A Letter to Sir Walter Farquhar, Bart. on the Subject of a particular Affection of the Bowels, very frequent and fatal in the East-Indies.* 8vo. 2s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

We are much pleased with this short account of a disease which to us is new. The author relates, with great simplicity and candour, but with equal judgement and discrimination, the appearances of the disease, and its remedies. It would be well if other complaints were so satisfactorily described.

'The disease of which I speak, and which is, by much, the most acute and fatal I have met with in India, is an inflammation of the colon, attended, from the beginning, with a severe fixed pain above the pubes; with extreme difficulty of making water, and frequently an entire suppression of urine. There is, at the same time, a violent and almost unceasing evacuation from the bowels, of a matter peculiar to the disease, and which I cannot describe more correctly, than by observing that it exactly resembles water in which raw flesh had been washed or macerated. There is always a very high fever, with unquenchable thirst and perpetual watchfulness. The pulse is extremely hard, frequent, and strong, resembling that which takes place in the highest degree of pleurisy or the most acute rheumatism; and there is a burning heat in the skin, which leaves a sensation on the finger, as if it had touched a piece of heated metal.

'The fixed pain above the pubes, together with the peculiar evacuation above described, and the suppression of urine, may be regarded as the diagnostics of this disease, which will, on every occasion, sufficiently distinguish it from all other disorders of the intestines. These three leading symptoms are so constant and invariable, that, having always found them existing together when I was first called to see the patient, I had often great difficulty in ascertaining the exact order in which they arose; for the first approaches of disease are either disregarded or not accurately marked by the persons affected. Some of the patients told me that the fixed pain and purging began at the same time; others, that the pain preceded; and others, that they had been suddenly seized with a purging, which, after a few hours' continuance, was followed by the fixed pain and strangury. This last, though a constant, is, no doubt, a secondary symptom, depending on the previous affection of the colon: but with respect to the fixed pain and evacuation, they appeared, in all severe cases, to have begun so nearly at the same time, that I could not determine, with precision, which followed or which preceded the other.' P. 3.

From dissection, the colon seems to be primarily affected, and the bladder suffers only from communication, as the lower part of the large intestine is generally inflamed. Tenesmus sometimes occurs; but the distinction between it and dysentery is sufficiently obvious from what we have transcribed. Bleeding seems useful; but opium, given in the commencement, is the most effectual remedy. If delayed till the fever supervenes, it is injurious, and can only be admitted on the decline of the complaint. The remedies then are emollient clysters and drinks, with fomentations above the pubes,

which are more useful than blisters. Similar symptoms occasionally succeed after the usual fluxes of India: but they then are only a secondary complaint, and are to be managed in the same way.

ART. 35.—*Some few Cases and Observations on the Treatment of Fistula in Ano, Hemorrhage, Mortification, the Venereal Disease, and Strictures of the Urethra. By John Andree, M. D. &c.* 8vo. 2s. Nicol.

These cases have unaccountably escaped us; which we regret the more, as in some points to which they refer we have been obliged to find our own way without assistance. Fortunately we have not greatly differed from our author. Fistula in ano may, he remarks, be often cured without the operation, by attending to the patient's health, and avoiding irritation, or using only a gentle compress. Indeed the health should be particularly attended to; for they are often depositions from the mere efforts of nature, and, on the discharge being stopped, the original disease returns.

In hæmorrhages from wounds, the artery, when tied, should always, in our author's opinion, be brought to the sight. In a violent internal hæmorrhage from the intestines, he succeeded by placing the patient in a washing-tub, and repeatedly pouring pails of cold water on the belly.

In mortification, attended with pain, Dr. Andree thinks opium even a superior medicine to the bark. As an antisyphilitic, he conceives the nitrous acid not effectual, though it may relieve some obstinate Venereal symptoms when mercury has been long continued and disagrees. He dissuades the application of mercurial ointment to chancres, and prefers dry lint. Some fixed pains, which remain after salivation, he remarks, are often rheumatic, and may be cured by the sarsa, a milk diet, and free air. In this observation most practitioners will agree with him.

Some cautions are added respecting the use of caustics; and Dr. Andree advises that they be not employed till bougies have absolutely failed.

ART. 36.—*Experiments upon the Circulation of the Blood, throughout the vascular System: on languid Circulation: on the Motion of the Blood, independent of the Action of the Heart: and on the Pulsations of the Arteries. By the Abbé Spallanzani. With Notes, and a Sketch of the Literary Life of the Author; by J. Tourdes, M. D. &c. Translated into English, and illustrated with additional Notes; by R. Hall, M. D. &c.* 8vo. 9s. *Boards.* Ridgway. 1801.

We noticed the original of this work in the Appendix to our 29th volume, p. 544, and need only announce the present translation. It appears sufficiently correct and elegant. The additional notes are not numerous, nor are they important.

ART. 37.—*The Doctrine of Phlogiston established, and that of the Composition of Water refuted. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. No Publisher's Name.

This is the *telum imbelle, sine ictu*, of a veteran in the science of the conquered Priam. To engage in the controversy at present would

be useless: but many facts which readily admit of solution, according to the new doctrine, are urged with a pertinacity bordering on prejudice. It is singular, that, in theology as well as philosophy, Dr. Priestley will allow no one to change his opinions except himself.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

ART. 38.—*The System followed during the two last Years by the Board of Agriculture further illustrated; with Dissertations on the Growth and Produce of Sheep and Wool, as well Spanish as English. Also, Observations upon, and a new Plan for, the Poor, and Poor Laws. To which are added Remarks on the Modes of Culture and Implements of Husbandry, used in Portugal; and an Inquiry into the Causes of the late Scarcity, and Means proposed to remedy it in future. By John, Lord Somerville. Illustrated with Plates.* 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.* *Boards.* Miller.

This system, the observations on the English wool, and the superiority of the Rhyeland sheep, have been already before us in different publications; and we have expressed our full approbation not only of the plan of manufacturing English cloths with English wool, but of the great probability of being able to effect it, if the whole system be not entirely destroyed by the gross Leicestershire and Lincolnshire breeds. No observation that we have yet been enabled to make has convinced us that the meat and the wool are not materially injured by thus adding to the bulk and the fat of the animal.

The other parts of this volume are highly useful, particularly the employment of oxen in drawing, as managed in Portugal. It reminds us of an omission in our account of the Agricultural Survey of Lincolnshire, where this subject particularly occurs, and where the slowness of oxen is considered as a drawback upon their other advantages. We intended to have remarked that this is only a partial inconvenience, and by no means to be put in competition with the other circumstances which lead us to the employment of other animals in husbandry, as preferable to oxen. The remarks on the poor's laws are not of peculiar importanee.

ART. 39.—*The Gentleman and Farmer's Assistant; containing, first, Tables for finding the Content of any Piece of Land, from Dimensions taken in Yards. Second, Tables, showing the Width required for an Acre in any square Piece of Land, from one to five hundred Yards in Length. Third, Tables, showing the Number of Loads that will manure an Acre of Land, by knowing the Distance of the Heaps. Fourth, a Table for measuring Thatcher's Work, from one to sixty-four Feet long, and from one to twenty-five Feet high. By John Cullyer.* 12mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* *Bound.* Scatcherd.

This is a useful work for both gentlemen and farmers; as from it they may with great ease measure their land, determine upon the most profitable method of manuring it, and decide with accuracy upon a variety of expenses incidental to agriculture.

EDUCATION.

ART. 40.—*A Rhetorical Grammar: in which the common Improprieties in Reading and Speaking are detected, and the true Sources of elegant Pronunciation are pointed out. With a complete Analysis of the Voice, showing its specific Modifications, and how they may be applied to different Species of Sentences, and the several Figures of Rhetoric. To which are added, Outlines of Composition, or, plain Rules for writing Orations and speaking them in public. The Third Edition, with considerable Alterations and Additions. By John Walker.* 8vo. 7s. Robinsons. 1801.

The candour and good sense of this respectable author bespeak our applause; and on an examination—for, though it be the third edition, we have again looked it over—we find no reason to resign our prepossession. His arguments and illustrations equally claim our applause; yet we think, with him, that the pupil will follow the example rather than investigate the foundation of the precept. Be it so: this will not lessen the merit of the writer; for those who have learnt the learned languages without the rules of grammar would however have found themselves more complete masters with their assistance. The author's account of the great improvements in this edition we shall select.

'The present edition is almost a new work. The praxis of sentences, so arranged as to lead the pupil from the easiest to the most difficult, seemed better calculated for the lower class of pupils in reading than for students in rhetoric, and therefore this has been omitted. The want of rules for composition, so essential in rhetoric, has been supplied from the best source—Blair's Lectures: and what was deficient even in these has been furnished from professor Ward's Lectures on Oratory:—so that with the original matter on the elegant pronunciation of words, on accent, emphasis, and inflexion of voice, and the proper pronunciation of the figures of rhetoric, it is presumed the present work is the most perfect of its kind in the language.' P. v.

ART. 41.—*Elements of Elocution: in which the Principles of Reading and Speaking are investigated; and such Pauses, Emphasis, and Inflexions of Voice, as are suitable to every Variety of Sentence, are distinctly pointed out and explained; with Directions for strengthening and modulating the Voice, so as to render it varied, forcible, and harmonious. To which is added, a complete System of the Passions; showing how they affect the Countenance, Tone of Voice, and Gesture of the Body; exemplified by a copious Selection of the most striking Passages of Shakspeare. The whole illustrated by Copper-Plates, explaining the Nature of Accent, Emphasis, Inflexion, and Cadence. The Second Edition, with Alterations and Additions. By John Walker.* 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Robinsons.

This is a work of the same author, which equally merits our commendation. We cannot, as a second edition, engage in a very extensive analysis; yet can safely recommend it to the attention of public

speakers, who will certainly find it a work of value and importance. It is not showy and flowery, but judicious and intrinsically valuable. The alterations in this new edition we shall also add in the author's own words.

'When the first edition of this work was published, I considered the human voice as divisible into two inflexions only. Some time after, upon re-considering the subject more maturely, I found there were certain turns of voice which I could not distinctly class with either of these two inflexions. This discovery mortified me exceedingly. I feared my whole labour was lost, and that I had been fatiguing myself with a distinction which existed no where but in my imagination. None but those who have been system-makers can judge of the regret and disappointment which this apprehension occasioned. It did not, however, continue long. The same trial of the voice which assured me of the two opposite inflexions, the rising and falling, soon convinced me that those inflexions which I could not reduce to either of these two were neither more nor less than two combinations of them; and that they were real *circumflexes*; the one beginning with the rising inflexion, and ending with the falling upon the same syllable; and the other beginning with the falling, and ending with the rising on the same syllable.' P. xi.

POETRY.

ATR. 42.—*More Wonders! an Heroic Epistle to M. G. Lewis, Esq. M. P. With a Præscript extraordinary, and an Ode on the Union. By Mauritius Moonshine.* 4to. 2s. Barker. 1801.

The object of this epistle is to abuse Mr. Lewis, for making his Tales of Wonder a selection instead of an original work, and to ridicule the use of goblin machinery. This is done in decent rhymes, which no person can object to while he is reading the pamphlet, nor remember when he has laid it down; *e. g.*

'Oft, in youth's idle summer, have I stray'd,
Delighted, thro' the wild wood's leafy shade,
While from some legend's magic clue I caught
All its romantic tenderness of thought;
Oft, fondly glowing with heroic heat,
At *Arthur*'s table took my fancy'd seat;
At *Merlin*'s call, beneath unclouded skies,
Saw bloomy bow'rs, and golden turrets rise;
And, as soft warblings harmonis'd each spray,
Dissolv'd in bliss, all languishingly lay.
Soon riper reason spurn'd the specious dream,
When manhood bade me chuse a nobler theme,
Some theme by wider benefits pursu'd,
Some theme conducive to the public good.
Much as thyself I prize the merry elves,
But wish not fairy-tales to load our shelves;
Nor yet have offer'd, with presumptuous pride,
To push, for *Geoffry*, *Juvenal* aside;

Tho' oft my breast has felt a rapt'rous thrill,
Touch'd by the plume of *Ludovico*'s quill;
Tho' oft with *Dante* I have lov'd to dwell
Mid the dread woes of *Ugolino*'s cell;
And, o'er the fabled scroll of grief severe,
Heav'd the big sigh, or stream'd the ardent tear.
But when those fatal fantasies pervert
The wayward sense, not meliorate the heart,
When the numb'd soul is steep'd in stupid trance,
And ev'n the Scriptures dwindle to romance;
I curse the mādness of a guilty taste,
By thee, with more than vulgar glory, grac'd;
Avert my fondness, from such nauseous whims,
Preferring to *Child Waters*, *David's Hymns*.
Like conj'rer's bag, how many a maniac's scull,
Is with newts, toads, and asps, completely full!
Sure that the horrid medley will go down,
He spews his various garbage on the town,
'Till sprightly belles are frighten'd into fits,
And beaux, if blest with any, lose their wits.' P. 7.

An ode, entitled The Union, is subjoined, in which the anonymous poet, forgetting his dislike to all apparitions, introduces an Irish ghost; the same ode contains the following picture:

'Lo! with maternal fondness Mercy weeps;
Oh catch, oh venerate the holy dew!
One drop from that refulgent sluice
Can wash from Murder's pall the deepest dye,
And more than angel-purity produce.' P. 22.

This image of washing Murder's cloak in one tear from the *sluice* of Mercy's eye has all the merit of originality.

ART. 43.—*The Dawn of Peace, an Ode.—And Amphion, or the Force of Concord, Regulation, and Peace, an Ode. By Thomas Noble.* 4to. 2*s*. 6*d*. Ginger. 1801.

If the author of these odes be a young man, we may hope from him better things. His versification is strong and sonorous.

'Now may'st thou, Commerce, spread thy boldest sail,
Dare the dark storm, or court the gale:
Let thy wide arms again, with fond embrace,
Press to thy breast the human race:
Mandates from cruel Avarice disdain—
From Slavery's sanguinary train;
But ev'ry wish that Science breathes obey—
She taught thee first the wat'ry way;
Her magnet-sceptre to thy hand assign'd,
To blend our separated kind;
Gave thee the polished crystal, to descry
Thy path directed by the sky.

O now, while anxious Luxury awaits,
From ev'ry breeze thy costly freights,
Through distant climes waft Nature's genial plan,
And teach mankind to know—to love—to succour man.

'Come, ruddy Labour, lov'd by Freedom, come—
Drop thy red faulchion, and thy plough resume;
No longer war requires thy youthful band:
They come—a rude and hardy train—
They hear the uncultur'd earth complain,
They see cold Avarice grasp the dearthy land,
Tremble Monopoly—thy reign is o'er!
A war-taught troop demand their food,
From fields defended by their blood:
Where's their till'd acre—that paternal store?
Barren! it now extends thy desolate domain.
Base Avarice, more cruel than the grave!
The swain opprest becomes thy slave:
No more Contentment enters his low cot—
Sport soothes no more his rugged lot;
For Independence, soul of joy, is flown,
Toil's produce is no more its own!
Each dastard vice his soul imbibes from thee—
Man to be virtuous must be free.

'Arise, delightful DAWN of PEACE, arise!
To thee pale Labour lifts his anxious eyes—
Thy roseate beams forsaken Art adores;
To thy bright morn his anthem Science pours—
And Liberty, her drooping face unveils,
Gazes on thee, and smiles, and thy glad promise hails!' P. 11.

In the second ode, Mr. Noble occasionally introduces the line of fourteen syllables.

ART. 44.—*The Genius of France, or the Consular Vision; a Poem. With Notes.* 4to. Hatchard.

The plan of this poem will be best explained by copying the argument.

'Bonaparte retires from the splendor of the Tuileries to Malmaison—His midnight slumbers are broken by the sudden appearance of the Genius of France, who wishes to inform himself of the ultimate designs of the consul on his country—He assumes the character of the Genius of Ambition to prevent detection, and conceal his views—The consul, convinced of supernatural agency, and anxious to be informed of his future destiny, exhibits a sketch of his general designs of exalting France—1, by arms and the revolutionary spirit—2, by commerce—3, by the arts and philosophy; but suspecting the errand of the genius, from the earnestness with which he inquires into the particular destiny of France, he determines to answer no question, and preserve an invincible silence: this reduces the Genius to the exercise of his power, in order to carry his point.

He evokes the shades of Cæsar and Cromwell, and shows him, that to follow their example is to share their fate. But, finding him rather envying than dreading their destiny, Monck is summoned, who made so wise and noble a use of equal power. An address is then directed more particularly to Bonaparte, and the visit closed with some wise and patriotic exhortations.' P. 5.

We extract the appearance of Cromwell.

' A form appear'd, more ghastly than the last,
With mis'ry inexpressible o'ercast;
Inly the blood-shot eye with terror glar'd,
Jaundice o'erspread his haggard cheeks—his beard
Discolour'd was, and burnt—half hid, he wore
A coat of mail, and arms in secret bore;
Invading care his deep-set wrinkles told,
Less by his years, than sorrows, stricken old.——
Conviction met the consul's rapid view,
And the great shade by sympathy he knew.
In act he stood his visitor to hail,
His words, the mighty charm so order'd, fail;
From his wrung bosom bursts the frequent sigh,
And half-form'd accents in low murmurs die.
Intent the Genius gaz'd, as if to scan
The soul's unguarded workings, then began—
" That conscious eye, that heaving breast, declare,
The great Protector's titles I may spare:
'Tis well—and, oh! with awe this scene survey;
Home to thy breast this dread example lay.
What, though he act the monarch's outward part,
Thou seest the vulture preying on his heart:
What, though abroad or dreaded or rever'd,
At home behold him, fearing more than fear'd——
Suspicion haunts him as he breaks his bread;
Suspicion follows where he lays his head:
He sees a murd'rer when he hails a guest,
And in a daughter's arms can find no rest.
Shun, so thou hop'st, a Cæsar's bloody tomb;
Know, life subsists but in a Cromwell's doom:
The surest path thou tread'st in leads to this,
And Caution's footstep trembles o'er th' abyss.—
Behold how all his glitt'ring trophies fade!
How sorrows haunt, and maladies invade;
See, hope by terror, comfort chas'd by care,
And life resign'd in yellings of despair!
Oh! stop one moment in thy proud career—
One moment stop;—from Glory's dazzling sphere
Behold the fruit that usurpations give—
To die like Cæsar, or like Cromwell live." P. 23.

The versification of the whole poem is equally spirited.

ART. 45.—*Poems, chiefly Sonnets, by the Author of Translations from the Italian of Petrarch, Metastasio, and Zappi.* 8vo. 3s. Robinsons.

These poems discover little imagination; but they are evidently produced by a man of good and affectionate feelings, and a cultivated mind. The two following sonnets will be read with interest.

'SONNET XX.

'*On the Death of my Brother* FREDERICK.

'Νυν τις ενηειης ———
Μνησασθω· πασιν γαρ επιστατο μειλιχος ειναι
Ζωος εων· νυν δ' αυ θανατος και μοιρα κιχανει. ΙΛ. P. 670.

'Sweetest and best of men, of brothers, friends,
Of sons, of masters! whose unruffled mind
No duty e'er forgot, no toil declin'd:
With all that modest worth which ne'er pretends
Though active still; that charity that tends
Another's sores, while piously resign'd
She veils her own; that wisdom that combin'd
With courage stiffly stands or timely bends!
O witness, for ye knew, each faithful breast,
With him so oft in hard adventures tried,
Speak him in deeds how old, in years how green!
Witness this heart, though wounded not depress'd,
Whose sorrow swells e'en now with decent pride,
And dares to thank thy God that thou hast been!' P. 39.

'SONNET XXI.

'Vain, foolish girl, whose seeming beauteous face
Serves but to hide the weak contracted heart;
In whose soft features ev'ry pleasing art
Deluded fancy strives in vain to trace;
In whom no gen'rous feeling finds a place,
Friendship, nor love, nor soft compassion's smart;
But, careless to receive or to impart,
Thou hid'st in sullen silence ev'ry grace;
At length I've broke thy chain; my heart is freed;
Upon the hook of cold suspense no more
Bleeding to hang, and in fond struggles faint.
And haply, when thy short-liv'd reign is o'er,
To warmer passions pity shall succeed,
Pity to hear thy lone and fruitless plaint.' P. 41.

The volume is dedicated to Mr. Pitt, for whom (says the poet)

'——— the sorrowing Nine
Had turn'd indignant from a world oppress'd.' P. ix.

Is this praise or irony?

ART. 46.—*The Methodist; a Poem.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Button *and* Son. 1801.

An ironical defence of the Methodists, in smooth, but tame, blank verse. The following passage, alluding to a defence of subscription, is a fair and favorable specimen of the writer's powers.

'This pleased me well;
So I have drawn a creed—for my own use;
Tom has another, Jack, and Benjamin;
We all have creeds, different as *red* from *green*,
Yet, ne'ertheless, founded, as we are sure,
Upon our Articles.
'This *modern light*,
This *sweeping lexicographer*, no doubt
Reason'd from *strict analogy*. The sun,
The moon and stars, all have their stated rounds,—
Why should not language turn? The restless sea,
The earth we stand on, all are full of change,—
Why should not language change? And I might say,
Our prelates and our clergymen themselves,
(Providing for their future beef and pudding)
Are evermore in motion, *getting on*,—
Why should not language move?
'I trust our friend,
Our *greater Newton*, will persist in these
His *vast* discoveries. Who can dare to say
What changes may take place, by *such* a light
Pour'd on dark matter? He at length may cause
A revolution in material things,
And clearly prove that day is night *disguised;*—
That misery means happiness; that men,
When, in a frolic, or a drunken fit,
They *dash* their paper heads *against the wall*,
Feel nothing but *most exquisite sensations:*—
Nay, such the fertile fancy of our friend,
It is most likely, he will by and by
Disprove all Euclid; show that elephants
Are men grown *corpulent*—old aldermen!
That fire is water, and that hell itself
Means the third heavens!' P. 55.

Profane readers will complain that the poem is feeble and tediously long. But the poet will be classed, by those of his own persuasion, among the sweet singers of Israel.

ART. 47.—*The Conjunction of Jupiter and Venus, in Leo; on the 29th of September,* 1801.—*A happy Prelude to a propitious Peace; a Poem.—Mercury's Apology for the Curate's Blunder, an Impromptu; addressed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Yarmouth. And other Poetical Pieces. By the Rev. John Black.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Robinsons.

Mr. Black is improved in versifying. We recollect no passage in his former publication equal to these lines—

'Those, who let slip the dogs of war,
And sent their mandates, dire, afar,
Which have produc'd such mighty woes,
Nor left one nation to repose;
Who see their palaces arise,
Like exhalations in the skies;
Whose hearts, from power quite callous grown,
No soft compunctious feelings own;
Whose ears, assail'd by plausive tones,
Heed not a nation's ceaseless groans;
Whom fawning parasites attend,
Prompt their worst actions to defend;
Whose eyes are all unus'd to weep,
Are haply at this hour asleep;
Deep-drench'd in care-repelling wine,
Oblivious, stretch'd on down supine.

'Should they these frenzied times survive,
And should a restless hour arrive—
Will then no terrors of the night,
From fields of blood e'er blast their sight?
Will all within their breasts be still;
And tranquil thoughts their bosoms fill?
Will they walk forth with souls serene—
Thus harmoniz'd to such a scene?
No—sure! The sense of right and wrong,
Will rise resistless—sternly strong,
Tear all the veils that conscience bind,
And flash conviction o'er the mind!
Sleep on then, ministers of hate!
I envy not your torpid state!
But oh! forbid I e'er should bear
The scorpions, that your souls shall tear!' P. 4.

NOVELS.

ART. 48.—*The Follies of Fashion; a Dramatic Novel.* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 13*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees. 1801.

The author of these volumes is by no means destitute of abilities, but they do not appear to advantage when employed in novel-writing. The language is sententious and didactic, rather than familiar. There is no diversity of character in the work; and the plot is so far from being interesting, that we can discover no *real* reason why sir John Scarsdale and miss Aubrey might not have been married as well in the beginning of the first volume as at the conclusion of the last. The amusements of the present day are certainly conducted in a more trifling manner than they were fifty years ago; but the author's censure of them is abuse rather than satire.

ART. 49.—*Something New; or, Adventures at Campbell House. By Anne Plumptre.* 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 15*s. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees. 1801.

The *Something New* which miss Plumptre here presents to the pub-

lic is an ugly woman, as the heroine of a novel. It is not very wonderful that the fair author had no predecessors in this tract; nor shall we deem it surprising if she have but few imitators, because novels are the food of young minds, and the copy of juvenile manners: they are a picture of the sensations of a warm imagination, at a time of life when, 'true to our nature, feeling achieves what reason attempts in vain.' To us, in whom old age has bent the passions under a great weight of reason and experience, miss Plumptre's good intention appears with all its advantages.

ART. 50.—*The Pirate of Naples; a Novel. By Mary Charlton. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards.* Lane. 1801.

Angela, the heroine of these volumes, is the supposed child of Nicolo Trappola, a fruiterer of Naples. After passing some time among caves, rocks, and coffins, in due form of novel procedure, she turns out to be the daughter of a person of family, and is married to the man who had fallen in love with her in her former humble state. Notwithstanding all this has been related a hundred times before, it is not badly repeated by Mrs. Charlton. The affixing such names to the personages of a novel as are common to the country where the events happen is certainly proper; but the using the terms of quality in a foreign language, as, *marchese*, *madre*, *palazzo*, *povra*, &c. savours a little of affectation.

ART. 51.—*Delaval; a Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards.* Lane. 1802.

This is a pleasing little novel, written in an easy correct style, though it contains no novelty of incident.

ART. 52.—*Swedish Mysteries; or, Hero of the Mines: a Tale. Translated from a Swedish Manuscript, by Johanson Kidderslaw. 3 Vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Boards.* Lane. 1801.

We have not leisure to examine whether this novel be really a translation from the Swedish, or whether it be the original production of him who calls himself the translator. The narrative is sufficiently gloomy, and the language sufficiently turgid, to warrant a belief that it is the offspring of some northern author. It will, most likely, amuse for two or three months those who search after novelty; and then, like its brethren, it will be forgotten.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 53.—*The Thespian Dictionary; or, Dramatic Biography of the Eighteenth Century; containing Sketches of the Lives, Productions, &c. of all the principal Managers, Dramatists, Composers, Commentators, Actors, and Actresses, of the United Kingdom: interspersed with several original Anecdotes; and forming a concise History of the English Stage. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards.* Hurst. 1802.

This work is intended for a pocket-companion, being closely printed with a very small type, in order to contain a great quantity of matter in as contracted a space as possible. One fault we cannot avoid pointing out; which is, that the dates are not always correct.

This perhaps may be an error of the press; but, even as such, it is an unpardonable neglect in a book of reference. In justice, however, we must say that this pocket volume contains a variety of information, which will be found entertaining and instructive to those who are fond of theatrical anecdote and biography. In one particular it is entitled to our warmest praise; namely, that it will not offend the chastest eye. It is a plain narrative of the lives of performers, &c. so far only as they have respect to their calling, and is totally silent upon that lewdness and immorality which too often blacken the history of those who have passed their time among actors and actresses.

ART. 54.—*New Instructions for playing, in all its Varieties, the Game of Billiards with Ease and Propriety. To which is prefixed an Historical Account of the Game, &c. By an Amateur.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. *sewed.* Hurst. 1801.

We have been much disappointed on a perusal of this book. The title informs us that it contains 'instructions for playing;' and, in the description of a mathematical game, we reasonably expected, therefore, scientific principles. We hoped to have seen the angles of the different parts of the table pointed out, and to have heard somewhat of the laws of velocity and repulsion. But nothing of the sort occurs in the whole performance; nor is there the smallest information advanced by what means a hazard may be made from any one given point of the table: all that is laid down is the rules of the different games; yet of what use is a marker but to decide these at the time the parties are playing?

ART. 55.—*The Encyclopædia of Wit.* 12mo. 6s. *Boards.* Phillips.

This is one of the most witless productions we ever perused. There is less of Attic salt in these 558 pages than in almost any other work of the sort with which we are acquainted, although not containing the fourth part of that number. If our readers wish to see into what kennels the compiler has been raking in order to swell the bulk of his volume, they may read the following *witty* story.

'DUTCH DELICACY.

'The Hollanders keep their apartments religiously clean, and, to prevent their being dirtied by the consequences of smoking, sit round the room in a circle, and he who has occasion to spit spits into his neighbour's mouth, who passes it on to another, and he to a third, until it gets into the mouth of the man who sits next the door, who passes it out of the room.' P. 8.

ART. 56.—*The Life and Campaigns of General Suworow, Conqueror of Italy. By an Officer.* 12mo. 2s. *sewed.* Hurst. 1801.

The actions of this celebrated warrior are particularised, in the volume before us, from his birth to his death. It might naturally be expected that a work written by an officer should lean a little to the side of his own country; and whenever it becomes necessary to

hint at parties, the author shows the direction of his bias; but in the main the performance is extremely impartial, and the relations are given in a much better flow of language than is always to be met with from a soldier.

The conclusion manifests the instability of every dependence upon princes:

'Sic transit gloria mundi.'

ART. 57.—*The Science of Teaching, applied to Elocution, Poetry, the Sublime of Scripture, and History, with a novel and improved Arrangement of the latter, for the Use of classical Pupils. By David Morrice.* 12*mo.* 3*s. Boards.* Lackington *and* Co. 1801.

Some miscellaneous remarks on the art of speaking, poetry, &c. dignified with a title-page of too much expectation. The novel and improved arrangement of the latter is only a chronological table, which, by giving to one side of the column, containing dates, the sacred, and the other the profane history, leaves frequently half the page a blank space. The whole wears too much the appearance of mere book-making.

ART. 58.—*Observations on Mr. Dundas's Letter of the* 30*th of June,* 1801, *to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the East-India Company.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Jordan. 1801.

A reproof of Mr. Dundas, who in 1784 proposed that the commissioners of control should be persons already in office, and receive no new emolument; but who in 1793 secured for himself and the commissioners each 5000*l.* yearly, and in 1801 retired with a letter of good advice and a pension of 2000*l.* a-year. But such matters are now viewed with complete apathy by the nation at large, and this apathy extends to yet greater objects; for the contempt of the late ministry for the public opinion, and, yet more, the unhappy violence to which they subjected it, have produced effects which might easily have been foreseen; and, in case of real danger, the consequent palsy would be found highly dangerous. As even the weakest of the alarmists seem now to be satisfied that there is no internal jeopardy, every mean should be used gently to revive and stimulate the public opinion, which would be found favorable to pacific measures, and of course to the present ministry.

ART. 59.—*A Dissertation on the Progress of the fine Arts. By John Robert Scott, D.D.* 4*to.* 3*s.* White.

A trivial declamation in praise of the fine arts.—The only thing worth notice is a note on the fate of a young artist called Proctor, which we shall transcribe.

'The fate of this ingenious youth deserves to be distinctly recorded. Born of humble parentage in one of the more distant counties, he had early manifested an admiration of the arts, and, being admitted a student of the Royal Academy, eminently distinguished himself there by his abilities and his industry. Applying peculiarly to sculpture, soon after the termination of his studies in the academy

he exhibited, at its annual exhibition in Somerset-place, two models of unrivaled excellence, which might, without fear of deterioration, have been placed in competition with the happiest productions of the best days of Grecian art, and which at the time met with their well-earned applause. But, alas! applause was his only reward: no wealthy patron took him by the hand, no affluent lover of the arts inquired into, or assisted, his circumstances; and his means being very confined, misery was his portion. He had however the soul of an artist, and for a length of time bore up with manly fortitude against his distresses. The present worthy president of the Royal Academy, suspecting his situation, with the aid of the council obtained for him from the Academy an annuity of 100*l.* a year, to enable him to go to Italy, and improve himself there: but the unhappy youth had unavoidably contracted some trifling debts, which he was utterly unable to discharge, and his mind was too delicately alive to every finer feeling to bear the thought of leaving this country without paying them. This circumstance, preying on his agitated spirits, and on a frame emaciated by the severest distress, caused his speedy dissolution, to the irreparable injury of the arts. After his death it was discovered that, for the last two years of his life, he had resided in a miserable cock-loft in the worst house in Clare-market, which he had rented for a shilling a week; and that his daily sustenance for that time had been only two dry biscuits, with a draft of water from the market pump.' P. 32.

ART. 60.—*Morality united with Policy; or, Reflexions on the old and new Government of France; and on various important Topics of Civil and Ecclesiastical Reform. By Robert Fellowes, A. B. &c.* 12mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* White. 1801.

True policy cannot be separated from morality; but the different interests which sway the sovereign and the people in most countries have hitherto rendered the union rather a question to be discussed in the regions of Utopia, than a problem to be reduced into practice in real life. History, however, instructs us in the lamentable truth, that, from the want of this union, very disastrous are the consequences to every country. A corrupt government naturally corrupts the people; the corruption of the people re-acts upon the government; the name of reform is treated with derision, till it is too late to introduce it, or till at length, the accumulation of abuses destroying the connexion between the sovereign and the people, the destruction of the former, produced by the anarchy and sedition of the latter, removes an ancient system, to pave the way for follies perhaps in the opposite extreme. Our author endeavours to palliate the tyranny of the old French government. There were few victims indeed in its Bastille; but the terror of it was as grating to an enlightened people as the cruelties exercised in it to the grosser feelings of their ancestors. The despotism of the last monarch was exercised with great moderation; yet France lamented the destruction of its constitution, and panted for the restoration of its three estates. The French, agreeably to their natural levity, have rushed into the grossest absurdities, mingled with the most sanguinary atrocities; yet this

ill conduct is rather a proof than an excuse of the crimes and follies of former reigns, in which, from neglect of the opportunities of correcting evils when every reform would have been accepted as a favour from the monarch, the power was thrown into hands incapable of exercising it with temper and discretion.

'The sovereignty of the people, which has been treated with so much folly and rancour among ourselves, is shown to be only an innocuous sound. 'The phraseology honours the government at least as much as it flatters the people;' for—

'It cannot be denied but that all governments, whether they be free or despotic, owe their strength and their security to the consent of the people. If they did not originate from their choice, they must be maintained by their consent. For no government can long stand if the people will its destruction. Their will, therefore, is sovereign; and is the real and essential base of all political sovereignty.' P. 41.

This question being settled, the good of the people is maintained to be the end of government; and that good cannot be neglected by any ministry without a violation of justice and humanity. Hence the real sovereignty, to which both princes and people are bound to submit, consists in the laws of religion and morality; and when they are neglected, the days of St. Bartholomew or the days of Robespierre are the necessary punishments for the wickedness of those who break the higher laws of Providence. Our author then proceeds to the important question of reform, particularly of a religious reform in his own country; on which head the scandalous advertisements for the sale of livings and the stock-jobbing traffic in preferments, are reprobated with due severity. Some obnoxious parts in our otherwise excellent Liturgy are censured as deserving of erasure; and a temperate alteration in the Articles is recommended. Tithes are judiciously defended, and a church establishment praised. The reform in the representation of the people is made to rest upon property; and these various reforms are recommended with great propriety to the present minister. The following observation will show the impartiality and sound sense of the writer.

'I am neither the foe nor the partisan, neither the panegyrist nor the calumniator, of the minister nor of the opposition; but truth compels me to declare, that there has been a great and prominent tendency in some late measures of taxation to depress the middle orders, and totally to extinguish mediocrity of fortune. Such measures accelerate the progress of a country towards slavery and wretchedness, and are ominous indications of wasting happiness and expiring freedom: for the middle classes are the only safe and solid rampart against arbitrary power on one side, and tumultuous disorder on the other.' P. 98.